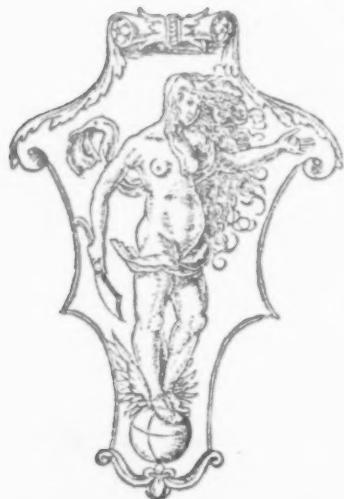


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# THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY



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# THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

A Journal of Investigation and Discussion in the Field of Library Science

Established by The Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago with the Co-operation of The American Library Association, The Bibliographical Society of America, and The American Library Institute.

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# THE LIBRARY QUARTERLY

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Volume XIII

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## THE ORGANIZATION OF KNOWLEDGE IN BOOKS

GEOFFREY WOLEDGE

### I

THE development of informative literature is so vast a subject that no one, I think, has ventured to write a book on it for the last two hundred years; and if I pass extremely lightly over some tracts of it and dwell disproportionately, by way of illustration, on a few sympathetic or entertaining figures, I probably need not apologize.

It is with the Greeks that the secular traditions of our civilization begin; the gardening column of the daily paper is connected by an unbroken chain with Hesiod, who put together in verse in the eighth century B.C. the proverbial lore of the Greek mountain farmer. There was no problem in the literature of information in his time. It was about 600 B.C. that Greek science really began, in the quick commercial coastal towns of Asia Minor; and after Thales of Miletus, the first European to foretell an eclipse, there were two hundred years—years in which schools of investigators and thinkers had succeeded one another—before Aristotle appeared, the first man to consider the problem that overwhelms us today—the organization in literature of information. By his time the intellectual capital had shifted to Athens. It was in the streets of Athens, bright with the spoils of her

empire, that Socrates had talked, twenty years before the birth of Aristotle, of justice and truth and immortality; it was at Athens that his pupil Plato had refined and elaborated his doctrines into a finely imaginative system. And then came Aristotle. We must not stop to consider him as the astute political observer, the quick-eyed naturalist who saw things not seen again for two thousand years, or the philosopher whose ideas have entered more than any others into the texture of our civilization. "It is the nature of man to desire knowledge," he said; and what concerns us now is his contribution to the technique of satisfying that desire.

First of all, we must note that he was, so far as we know, the earliest to realize the importance of knowing what had already been written on a subject. "The reader," he was nicknamed, and he is said to have been the first of the Greeks to form a library. He starts off his *Metaphysics* with a history of the philosophers who had gone before him—the first critical bibliography, we might call it. His pupils similarly summarized the earlier development of other branches of science. The works of the school, accordingly, considered as a whole—and they were planned as a whole—could be taken

as in some way superseding all earlier literature. In substance they were a vast co-operative encyclopedia, incorporating all that was already known and filling in the gaps as it went on; in form they were a series of exhaustive treatises.

And the exhaustive treatise became, from Aristotle's time onward, the standard form for the literature of information, though his encyclopedic spirit was gone. It was compiled, as centuries went on, with less and less criticism of its sources, with less and less awareness of gaps to be filled in, with less and less independent investigation where authorities differed.

There were exceptions, of course; some books would not submit easily to the process of excerpting and compiling, for various reasons—some because, like the works of Hesiod, they were written in verse; some because, dealing with the humanities, they were not altogether objective (the work of any shrewd historian is, as Thucydides says of his own, a *χρῆμα ἐς ἀεί*, a permanent possession); some, again, because they were recognized as bearing the stamp of a great man's individuality; and some, finally—the books of the Bible—because they were canonized as sacred books. Works of these classes could not be woven into compilations; but they could be illustrated by compilations, and so, beside the treatise, there grew up a second form of informative work, the commentary. Such was the learning of Alexandria, the first city where there might have been a library association; such was the learning of Rome.

It had seemed for a time as if Greek might become the international language of European scholarship. We do not always remember, looking back through ages when Latin was the language of learning, that *scholarship through Latin*

was once such an unpromising venture as *scholarship through Irish* is today. But Roman nationalism asserted itself and, making Latin the universal tongue, bequeathed to western Europe no more of the triumphs of the Greek intellect than the Romans had cared to boil down in their compendiums.

## II

The books of the Dark Ages and the Middle Ages had, with far more excuse, the same character of secondhand compilations as those of classical times. They were still copied out laboriously by hand; but the world was poorer and skilled scribes rarer and new books, in consequence, rarer too; and both old and new books were exposed, as they are again today, to the hazards of an unstable society. (As late as the twelfth century St. Bernard, writing to apologize for the nonreturn of a book lent from one monastery to another for copying, explains the reason: *ursus casu comedit*, "it was accidentally eaten by a bear.") The compiler had to abridge and botch, working against time and fate, to save what he could of good learning; there was no opportunity to compare authorities or to verify facts; he did his best, even if the result was contradictory or confused, as with the Anglo-Saxon chronicler who, copying a genealogy which carried his royal family back to the pagan gods, added to the name of the earliest of them, *se was geborene in þare arce*, "who was born in the Ark."

At last, about the time of the Battle of Hastings, the tide began to turn. Universities were founded, and libraries grew; forgotten books in dusty cupboards were read and copied, and others—much of Aristotle—were translated into Latin from the Arabic translations of the infidels, who had come as conquerors and

were staying as neighbors. Books grew in size as well as in numbers; the encyclopedic spirit was again abroad in the thirteenth century—uncritically but usefully in such writers as Vincent of Beauvais and Brunetto Latini, supremely critically in St. Thomas Aquinas, who united the metaphysics of Aristotle with the teaching of the Bible and the Fathers to found the official philosophy of the church, by one of the ironies of history, in part on what Christendom had learned in the very age of the Crusades from the Moslem world.

The works of the Schoolmen could not supersede the Bible or the Fathers, on which they were based; but, so far as they incorporated secular information, they included everything they thought necessary and so rendered earlier works superfluous; and thus, alike in the decline of the Dark Ages and in the recovery of the Middle Ages, the usual form of informative literature was the compiled treatise. A reader who had the latest book on a subject could, in theory at any rate, neglect the others.

### III

As we all know, the thing that differentiates modern from medieval books is the invention of printing about five hundred years ago; ever since then, more and more copies of books have become available for the general public, more and more different books for the student.

And the age when printing was making its way in the world was also the age when the lost books of ancient times were being recovered more rapidly than ever before or afterward. For a hundred years or so this recovery and its utilization were the most pressing occupations of the European mind; in the sixteenth century classical scholarship was not, as it is today, one of many specialties, useful

in its place and mischievous when it usurps the place of other studies; it was the primary instrument of every kind of study. The men of that age were not, as Browning has pictured them in his *Grammatician's Funeral*, preoccupied with the niceties of scholarship to the exclusion of the large affairs of life; Browning's grammarian had no parallel in real life until, in this century, Ludwig Traube completed on his deathbed his substantial volume on the abbreviations used in the Latin manuscripts of the Middle Ages for the three words "Deus," "Dominus," and "Christus." On the contrary, they were extremely practical men; Erasmus the friend of princes, Rabelais the entertainer of thousands—these were typical scholars of the revival of letters. Not only was the recovery of the classics an affair for the grammarian, the literary critic, and the historian; it also concerned the theologian, to whom it brought more and more of the writings of the Fathers of the church, the Greek and Hebrew originals of the Bible, the possibility of a standard text of the Vulgate and of vernacular translations of the Bible; it concerned the lawyer (who could go back more certainly to his Roman precedents), the physician (who could base his practice and his observations on a fuller knowledge of the practice and observations of the ancients), the biologist, and the political philosopher, and the geographer.

If we look at the sixteenth century, as we tend to, through those which followed it—with the eyes, say, of Bacon, eager for science to advance on its own lines untrammeled by tradition, and the spectacles of Macaulay, complacent with what science had achieved—we may believe that it was an age of blind devotees of antiquity. It was not: it was alert and critical; but it was at last able to place

among its teachers, beside the masters of the Middle Ages, those of the ancient world.

And so it comes about that the sixteenth century got much of its information from editions of the ancient writers and put much of its discovery into the form of comments on them—that an account of America, for instance, is to be looked for in an edition of Ptolemy, who died some thirteen hundred years before it was discovered.

But that was not all, of course; there was no lack of new substantial treatises, like those of Copernicus and Vesalius, for example, which set going, respectively, modern astronomy and modern anatomy and were published, as it chanced, in the same year, 1543, or those of Budaeus in the first half of the century and Scaliger in the second, which settled the problems of the Roman coinage and of ancient chronology; or of monographs and compendiums, chronicles and histories, dialogues of speculation and systems of philosophy. Burton complains:

In this scribbling age wherein *the number of books is without number . . .* presses be oppressed . . . every man . . . will write no matter what . . . they must say something . . . to be counted writers . . . to get a paper kingdom. . . . They will rush into all learning of peace or of war, divine, human authors, rake over all *Indexes* and *Pamphlets* for notes, as our merchants do strange havens for traffick, write great *Tomes* . . . wheras they are not thereby better Scholars, but greater praters. . . . What a catalogue of new books all this year, all this age (I say). . . . Who can read them?

We must all, even librarians, have sometimes asked ourselves that question.

One man, an older contemporary of Burton's, who certainly read a great many of them, was old Joe Scaliger, whom I have just mentioned as the man

who established the basis of ancient chronology for the modern world. He was of French birth and Italian descent, justifiably proud of the scholarship of his father, Julius Caesar Scaliger, and inordinately vain of his supposed noble ancestors, the Della Scalas of Verona. After a wandering but studious life, in which his unfailing memory, acute judgment, and unremitting industry had enabled him to explain much that scholars had puzzled over and to discover much that they had missed, he settled in 1593 at the age of forty-eight as professor of history at Leyden, being exempted from the burden of lecturing and asked only to shed on the university the luster of his presence. Some of his visitors jotted down notes of his conversation, which were afterward published; and the *Scaligeriana* is one of the world's most entertaining books. It is like the best talk of a less wise but more learned and equally witty Doctor Johnson, recorded by a Boswell less subtle, perhaps, but equally appreciative. It is full of learned and unlearned gossip, of judgments that are generally wise, sometimes foolish, always acute. But it concerns us here because it shows the scholar's attitude to books. He gossiped away about this man's text of one author, that man's notes to another; about book-collecting and libraries, manuscripts and printed books:

A certain knight gave the University of Oxford a library which cost forty thousand pounds; it should have been rich, I got the catalogue, they are almost all common books. . . . Melissus who was librarian of the Palatine Library [at Heidelberg] would let in nobody. . . . Baptista Egnatius was a schoolmaster at Venice, and the beggar had good books. He lived in the time of Budaeus, and knew something. . . . M. Cujas was such a good man, he lent manuscripts to anyone who asked him, he lent some to me. He had a lot of manuscripts but late ones—and so had Melchior.

And finally:

Hippolytus *On the end of the world*, I want to get it, not that it's good, but I want to have all the Greeks.

Scaliger was a great man and could disport himself among mountains of books before which another might quail. Said Sir Thomas Browne:

'Tis not a melancholy *utinam* of my own but the desires of better heads, that there were a general synod—not to unite the incompatible difference of religion, but, for the benefit of learning, to reduce it, as it lay at first, in a few and solid authors; and to condemn to the fire those swarms and millions of rhapsodies, begotten only to distract and abuse the weaker judgments of scholars, and to maintain the trade and mystery of typographers.

Sir Thomas' synod has still not met; but other and less radical remedies have been tried. The first was bibliography; and the first bibliographer of the modern world was Conrad Gesner of Zurich (1516-65). He published in 1562 an *autobiography* containing sixty-seven works he had produced and eighteen he hadn't—yet; he ranged over Greek and Latin poetry, theology, medicine, linguistics; he was perhaps the greatest naturalist of his century and produced the first edition of one of the Greek zoologists; but he concerns us particularly for only two of the sixty-seven works he actually produced; first, his *Bibliotheca universalis* (Zurich, 1545):

The Universal library, a most complete catalogue of all writers in the three tongues, Latin, Greek and Hebrew: extant and nonextant, old and new up to the present, learned and unlearned, published and lying hid in libraries [i.e., in manuscript]. A new piece of work, and not only necessary for forming public or private libraries, but also most useful to all students of any art or science for the better shaping of their studies.

This contains particulars of fifteen thousand books, which an appendix ten years

later brought up to nineteen thousand. A very respectable beginning for bibliography! But that was not all he did at it. Three years later, in 1548 and 1549, he brought out a second part of his work: "Twenty-one books [but really only twenty, for the one dealing with medicine remained in the second compartment of his *autobiography*] of Pandects or Universal partitions," a more modestly titled but far more ambitious and comprehensive work, containing some thirty-seven thousand five hundred entries disposed according to subject. Bibliography had begun well, and the world was not slow to follow Gesner's example. His own works were abridged and supplemented, and by 1686 it had become possible for Antoine Teissier to publish at Geneva a bibliography of bibliographies. (The first bibliography of bibliographies of bibliographies was not published until 1901, in Chicago.)

The waters of the flood were rising; but it was still just possible for a man to chart them single-handed, and just in time the genius to do it was born. His name was Daniel Georg Morhof, and it was in 1639 that he was born, at Wismar on the Baltic. He was educated at the neighboring university of Rostock, so successfully that on taking his Master's degree at the age of twenty-one he was appointed professor of poetry. When he was twenty-six (1665) the University of Kiel was founded; and there he lived and labored until his death in 1691, at first professor of eloquence and professor of poetry and, later, concurrently rector, professor of history, and (1680—) librarian. His portrait, with his hand clasping generous folds of classical drapery to his bosom but not concealing his high-collared coat and loosely knotted stock, shows a bold and open face framed by the curls of his wig—firm, hook-nosed, double-chinned,

full-lipped, high-browed, and with great, bold, serene eyes. He was a kindly, modest, warmhearted man; he must also have been a man of exceeding industry.

His great book, remembered by name but I fancy rarely opened, is called the *Polyhistor*—the man of much knowledge. And it is a great book. It is a general guide to the literature of information, as it then existed, based on lectures which he delivered to his students—in which of his many capacities I do not know; I like to think it was as university librarian. At any rate, for this course, he appeared armed not with notes to read but with books to talk about, and he talked about so many that it is hard to think that he can have done it anywhere but in the university library.

Underlying the book and clearly expressed by Morhof himself is a philosophy of education: the *Polyhistor* is to be not "encyclopedic" but "polymathic." He wished, that is, to remedy the disintegration of learning which humanist specialization had come to substitute for the medieval synthesis; and to do this by giving students not a collection of unrelated scraps ("Encyclopedia") but an insight into the underlying principles of the different branches of knowledge and into their relations. "There is indeed," he says, "a certain relation and unity of the sciences, so that he cannot be called perfect in one who has not touched upon the others." This relation and unity is what he called "polymathia." And it is in this spirit that he sets off, soberly but cheerfully, on his immense task. His hearers, one may be sure, were at least sober when they realized what was before them.

His book was indispensable for its generation and, though now regarded as a historical curiosity, is actually still a useful book of reference. It rambles

along in its course, certainly; but, at least for the modern reader who takes it up partly for entertainment, it is none the worse for that. You never know what you may come across anywhere: in one place a short poetical dictionary, in another a note on the great negligence of the English in cataloging books; scraps of literary gossip, and a wealth of bibliographical and semi-bibliographical information, the range and accuracy of which is more impressive, the more one knows it.

#### IV

"Who can read them?" asked Burton. Well, the example of Morhof shows that even at the end of the seventeenth century the bulk of valuable literature, if not of "those swarms and millions of rhapsodies," was still within human grasp. In the eighteenth it was not. Sir Thomas Browne, in the 1670's, makes a passing reference to Paracelsus and Helmont, taking it for granted that the reader would know who they were; Dr. Johnson, editing Browne in 1756, found it necessary to add an explanatory footnote: "Wild and enthusiastic authors of romantic chemistry." The time had gone when it would be supposed that the educated man would know even the name and repute of all standard authors.

Editions and treatises had continued to multiply; and they had been reinforced, at first as single spires, then in battalions, by a new form of literature—by periodicals. (Now, of course, they come not even in divisions but in army corps.)

The earliest ones had been the products of academies, of learned societies. These were themselves a product of the Renaissance—a spontaneous formalizing of that wise and learned conversation which is so brilliantly mirrored in Castiglione's *Book of the Courtier*. They be-

gan in the sixteenth century; our own Royal Society was incorporated by Charles II, after nearly twenty years of informal existence, in 1662; and three years later it published the first part of its *Philosophical Transactions*, the first of all learned periodicals.

And then, by ones and twos, the number began to increase, and then by half-dozens—the *Transactions* of further general academies and of specialist societies and then journals dependent not on any society but on their own subscribers. And so the bulk mounted up.

And other bulky kinds of literature were added. In the sixteenth century men had already begun to collect in single volumes or series of volumes groups of related texts; in the seventeenth century, groups of modern treatises on related subjects; now such collections grew, and there were added to them vast works, too big for a single hand, undertaken and carried through by groups of scholars, such as the 1695 edition of Camden's *Britannia*, in which the archeology of the various parts of the United Kingdom is brought up to date by different specialists.

And then on top of them came the collections of historical sources—the *Acta sanctorum* of the Jesuit Bollandists, commenced in 1669; Muratori's row of twenty-eight folios containing the chroniclers of Italy (1723-51).

And with all these the output of the older kinds of literature, the edition and the treatise, continued, still mounting. What was to be done about it? It was beyond the power of any Gesner or Morhof.

Well, two things seemed possible: one was to abandon the hope of embodying all knowledge in a final treatise—to recognize that knowledge progresses and that even its progress is more than can

be followed at first hand. It was in 1665, two years after the beginning of the first learned periodical, that there appeared the first review, the *Journal des savants*. Henry Hallam (who had a firmer grasp of the intellectual growth of Europe than perhaps any man since his time, a hundred years ago) remarks of it: "The first book ever reviewed (let us observe the difference of subject between that and the last, whatever the last may be) was an edition of the works of Victor Vitensis and Vigilius Tapensis, African bishops of the fifth century." The *Journal des savants* was, like most of the early reviews, a freelance, one-man show: it was established by Denis de Sallo, a Parisian lawyer. Perhaps the best-known of its successors was the *Nouvelles de la république des lettres*, started in 1684 in Amsterdam by Pierre Bayle, a freethinking but nominally Huguenot refugee from France. These early reviews bind up into delicious little duodecimo volumes, full of the flavor of their age; and an apprentice book-collector might well begin by laying down a good stock of them.

Pierre Bayle concerns us, too, in another way: while reviews were chronicling the progress of knowledge, it seemed possible, though not to set it all out in one system, at least to summarize in a comprehensive work its various parts; and he was the author of one of the first encyclopedias. It was started as a series of corrections to a rival work; stuffed full of learning and mischief, it was published in 1697 as *Dictionnaire historique et critique*; and it is still, as (I hope) every librarian knows, an essential reference book. Bayle's outlook was skeptical but not altogether negative; and his *Dictionnaire* is important, not only because it presents accessibly a great deal of information, but also because it does so from

a definite point of view. It was the beginning of a new encyclopedic movement ("polymathic" in Morhof's sense) such as Europe had not known since the thirteenth century. Its banner and also its monument was the great French *Encyclopédie* published in 1751-77. At first the project of a publisher and his hacks for a revision of a useful, if pedestrian, English work, it was transformed in the hands of its editor, one of the earliest of independent professional writers—that shiftless, brilliant, warmhearted Frenchman, skeptical and inquisitive, Denis Diderot. He labored over it for more than thirty years, helped at first by Jean le Rond D'Alembert as assistant editor, enlisting a band of distinguished and undistinguished contributors, which made it more extensively co-operative than any undertaking of European learning since the time of Aristotle.

An alphabetically arranged encyclopedia is bound to be somewhat lacking in polymathia; and Diderot's impulsive temperament and the controversies of the time made this one more discursive than most. But, in spite of contradictions and evasions and irrelevancies, it is strongly marked with a unity of outlook. The rediscovered learning of the ancients had been absorbed; physical science in the age of Newton and his followers had achieved its own synthesis; despised and illiterate crafts had begun to stammer their way into print, lacking a literary idiom of their own and decking themselves out in dropped peacock feathers from the humanities; and the new generation added to these its own interpretation of human and divine affairs; and a large section of Europe achieved a synthesis again, concrete and practical where that of the Schoolmen had been abstract and speculative, anticlerical where that had been Christian. The *Encyclopédie*

was the fullest expression of this new synthesis, not only in its sly attacks on political and theological orthodoxy, but also, positively, in its mobilizing for the general reader of all the newly grown accumulation of knowledge, among which a personal enthusiasm of Diderot's own included the first full and serious exposition of the crafts and mechanical arts.

Morhof had written in Latin; the *Encyclopédie* was in French. For the first time since the Dark Ages the curse of Babel was falling across western Europe again, and at a moment when, with learned literature growing in an ever steeper curve, a common language was needed as it never had been before.

## V

The nineteenth century, in spite of the popular informative literature which started as a planned and consciously philanthropic educational movement in the eighteen-twenties, was an age when synthesis was lost in detail. Treatises and monographs became less and less important as a vehicle for original investigation in science, though they held their ground in the humanities. Bulkier than anything the world had known, came the collections of historical sources and texts, the folios of the *Monumenta Germaniae Historica*, and the equally formidable octavos of our own Record Office. Periodicals multiplied, first in the sciences, then in the humanities; congresses and expeditions produced their own records, lumbering and yet elusive; and the still uncharted waters of government publications flowed beyond the horizon.

And what of the last forty years? "The presses be oppressed," indeed. The two standard lists of periodicals contain nearly fifty thousand items, and most of them are still current; in the one subject of chemistry alone the production in one re-

cent year amounted to fifteen hundred books, fifteen thousand patents, and forty thousand articles in periodicals. The authors can scarcely have the time to be wild or enthusiastic, and the romance of their science, one might think, is crushed by its own bulk. One may indeed ask with Burton, "Who can read them?"

Well, things are not altogether so bad as they might seem; we know, we librarians, that we can generally make a shot at providing our readers with the particular information they want out of the total bulk that is on record. The organization of knowledge grows with the growth of knowledge itself, lagging behind, but not without hope of catching up.

Let us consider, first, the provision of information for the general reader. The encyclopedia has broken down: the *Britannica*, degenerating from edition to edition in the hands of hacks working under journalists, has become at last, in the words of Professor Bernal, the high-pressure salesmanship of a mass of unrelated knowledge. It has become, indeed, to use Morhof's distinction, encyclopedic and not polymathic. But there is, fortunately, no lack of popular books on most subjects, casual, indeed, and unrelated in their production, often duplicating one another and often leaving gaps unfilled; but, nevertheless, when they are written, as they often are, by men who are masters of their subjects and who understand their relation to the rest of knowledge, truly polymathic in spirit. If any of us ever manages to become in any degree a polyhistor (which is what we librarians should all be), how much is it not owing to such books, from the "Home University Library" to the "Pelicans."

And for keeping us up to date, we need two kinds of journal, one addressed to the

semispecialist, one to the nonspecialist. In science the semispecialist is admirably catered for in *Nature*; the nonspecialist was equally well provided for in *Discovery* until its lamentable disappearance. For the humanities there is nothing but the amateurish *Times Literary Supplement*, which, in its snappy new form as in its stodgy old one, is too full for the general reader, not full enough for the semispecialist, and not nearly expert enough for either.

Let us turn now to the specialist and see what means are at our disposal for giving him the information he needs; the half-forgotten knowledge *ex otiosa bibliothecarum custodia eruta*—"dragged from the idle custody of libraries," as a seventeenth-century title-page has it—and the new knowledge that appears in science chiefly in periodicals and in the arts both in periodicals and in books. How does he find it? Chiefly by the growth, in the last forty and especially in the last twenty years, of the discipline which is sometimes called "systematic bibliography" but which is now tending to leave that term to the historical study of the form of books and take to itself the ugly but, I am afraid, indispensable name of "documentation."

This secondary literature of documentation—expanding treatises, running through periodicals, breaking off into periodicals of its own, pullulating in title-lists, budding out into "library guides," and finally demanding a documentation of its own—is already a very substantial library in itself. Let us look, in turn, at its most important forms.

First come those that deal comprehensively and retrospectively with the literature up to a given date; and of them the first to turn to are those comprehensive treatises that the Germans led the way in producing, often under the not very

appropriate title of *Handbücher*. Beside such works may be placed title-lists. The usefulness of a *Handbuch*, it must be noted, depends on the closeness with which its text is linked with its bibliographical apparatus (this makes it unreadable, it is true, but its bulk does that in any case; the boldly conceived series of "Cambridge Histories," for instance, loses much of its value because it neglects this in striving for an unattainable appeal to the general reader). The usefulness of a title-list, on the other hand, depends largely on the degree to which the titles are illustrated by comment; and, accordingly, these two forms, as they approach perfection, tend to approach each other in content and to differ only in arrangement.

Both of them, again, may be richly selective or may aim at completeness; and, in fact, most subjects require both a full and a selective treatment, though there are few for which the complete collection is more than a bare list of titles. One of the first of these was the Royal Society's heroic *Catalogue of Scientific Papers*, whose nineteen majestic quartos, published from 1867 to 1925, record the scientific output of the nineteenth century, and record it in such a way that (except for the two or three subjects provided with indexes) one can usually find what one wants only by reading through all the entries, of which there are some three-quarters of a million.

Of the current forms, the first to be considered is the annual report on the progress of a subject, of which one of the earliest was the *Årsberättelse* of Berzelius on chemistry, first published in 1822. In Germany first of all, and afterward in other countries, these have gradually come into existence over a wide range of subjects. More recently they have been supplemented by less comprehensive but

more intensive surveys of those particular aspects of a subject in which progress is for the time most rapid or most fundamental, such as the "Historical Revisions" published in *History* since 1917/18, or the American *Chemical Reviews*, started in 1922. Book reviews have, of course, continued in an unbroken stream from the days of the *Journal des savants*; but they are less important today than abstracts of articles in periodicals, which themselves form independent periodicals for so many subjects. The earliest abstract journal seems to have been (again in the fertile field of chemistry) the *Pharmaceutisches Central-Blatt*, started in 1830; its successors in the last twenty years have tended to replace current title-lists, of which the most notable was the *International Catalogue of Scientific Literature* for the first fourteen years of the century; and there are now few subjects in science which are not catered for in this way, though the humanities are not so fortunate.

These developments have taken place unsystematically and piecemeal, in response to particular demands; in some subjects there is already a high degree of co-ordination, in others there are overlappings and gaps, in still others only a few oases in the desert; but, though it is still not so easy as it should be to find what has been written on a given point, it is incomparably easier than it was at the beginning of the century.

## VI

And what of the future? For specialist literature, one thing that is needed is to complete and co-ordinate the apparatus of documentation which we have already discussed: to provide comprehensive manuals, with abstracts and reviews and reports which would keep them up to date, without overlapping and without

gaps. That is relatively simple and is slowly coming to pass. But it is clear that the ordinary system of periodicals, containing a miscellany of articles each of interest to only a small proportion of its readers, is both wasteful and inefficient. The same applies to many of the books which publish the results of research in the humanities; too often their results, which would be enlightening to the general reader, are buried in a mass of sources and evidence useful only to the specialist who is very specialized indeed. We need a system of publishing and circulating generally only abstracts of most papers and abridgments of many books, distributing the full texts—reproduced no doubt by photography—to those who require them.

How far the use of cards will supersede that of books for bibliographies and abstracts is doubtful; they are bulky, less quickly usable, and take much filing. Even the skilled hand and eye of the librarian cannot use them as quickly—or as pleasurable—as printed pages.

The fullest discussion that I know on these topics is that of Professor Bernal in his stimulating, if controversial, book on the social function of science; it might have been fuller and better if his expert consultants had included a practicing librarian.

Such reforms would benefit us all; but their execution must be left (short of the dictatorship of the proletariat, which would appear to be Bernal's preference) to the agreement of the specialists who are alike the producers and the consumers of specialist literature.

But what about informative literature for the general public? There is, we know, an enormous mass of this; and we also know, to our cost, that it is uncoordinated, full of duplication, full of gaps, and almost completely uncharted.

Here the users and the producers are different classes; the general reader is rarely in a position to judge of the merits of the books which are offered to him, and the publisher and the specialist author are not much more often aware of his real needs. Who is there, then, in a position to deal with this problem of general literature? Who, indeed, but the person whose function it is to be a disinterested intermediary between the producer and the consumer—who but the librarian?

The librarian can concern himself with it in two ways. One—and not, it seems, an easy one—is by organizing and expressing the demand for books. What can be done thus is shown by the way in which the H. W. Wilson Company has been enabled to produce expensive works by the knowledge that they would be bought by libraries; but their activities have been almost entirely limited to books which, though they may have other uses as well, are the working tools of the librarian. An attempt to extend the same principle to general literature was the Library Association's project, undertaken by Seymour Smith, to persuade publishers to reprint books that are out of print but still in demand by guaranteeing them support from libraries; I fancy that, to our shame, we did not give it enough backing to produce any fruit.

But there is another thing we can do; as well as evoking books which do not exist but should, we can chart those that do. Two modern successors of Morhof, librarians who have done charting work of this kind, are Minto and the indispensable Miss Mudge; but they deal only with reference books and address themselves primarily to fellow-librarians. Roberts' recent admirable guide to technical literature is more the sort of thing

I have in mind, though it is addressed at least to semispecialists; so is Seymour Smith's book on translations of the classics, though it deals with the literature of delight rather than the literature of information. But when we have named these four books, we have come almost to the end of the contributions of English-speaking librarians to documentation for the general reader.

And yet it is on our critical knowledge of books, such as these works represent, that we must base any claim to consider ourselves as a profession; not on our office work or our charging systems, not even

on our technique of cataloging and arranging books—all of them things about which we write and talk so much. Of this writing and talking, I confess that I have done my full share at one time or another; but, indeed, we have no need to regret our zeal for our household affairs, so long as it does not make us forget our allegiance. And it is, accordingly, not by way of retraction of a great deal of shop, talked and written on many occasions in public and in private, but rather as a supplement to it, that I put forward this statement of the purposes that it serves and the ideals that sustain it.

MANUSCRIPTS IN MICROFILM  
PROBLEMS OF CATALOGER AND BIBLIOGRAPHER

WILLIAM JEROME WILSON

SUBJECT CATALOGER AND  
RESEARCH SCHOLAR

No AMERICAN librarian, it has been said, can see a hundred books together and not be seized with an irresistible desire to make a card catalog of them. Historically, however, the card catalog seems to be not an American but a French invention. The first record of its use is apparently in 1775, when the Abbé Rozier employed it in indexing the publications of the Paris Academy of Sciences.<sup>1</sup> About a century later, in the 1890's, several American libraries began to print their entry cards. This, more perhaps than any other one thing, made possible the enormous expansion of modern catalogs. Printing supplied any desired number of duplicates at a very slight cost and thus facilitated the use of the "added entry," one of the most important devices in the whole of library science. Normally, the main entry for a book occurs under the name of the author, which therefore appears on the first line of the printed card. But some books have two or more authors, and many books treat of several subjects. For each of these, by means of added entries, a copy of the printed card can be inserted at the proper alphabetical point in the catalog. At the top of

the card, above the first line of print, one merely typewrites the desired name, title, or subject, which then becomes the controlling element in the alphabetization of that card. The beauty of this device is that it puts the complete information in at every point at which the item will presumably be looked up. The added entry is to the card catalog what an index is to a printed book.

It is generally felt that the films assembled by the War Emergency Program require some kind of card-cataloging. Shall we view this indulgently as a mere library fetish in the good American tradition, or is there some logical need for it? There is a need, but it may not be immediately apparent. It would seem at first sight that such check lists as the one recently issued, giving merely the designating numbers of the manuscripts, should meet all the real needs of scholars. For those who already know of the existence and the general nature of the works, who have seen descriptions of them in bibliographies or in printed catalogs, and who have, in fact, made request for the films on the basis of such knowledge, the check lists are enough. In other words, the expert who already knows the field, who knows the titles of the significant books and the location of the pertinent manuscripts, needs merely to be informed that film copies are available. And some, to conclude the argument, will doubtless add that these are recondite and difficult areas of research in which no one but the expert has any business to be at large.

<sup>1</sup> Cf. M. S. R. James, "The Progress of the Modern Card Catalog Principle," in *The Library and Its Contents*, ed. Harriet Price Sawyer ("Classics of American Librarianship," ed. A. E. Bostwick) (New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1925), pp. 331-38; also Richard B. Prosser, "The Origin of the Card Catalogue," *Library Association Record*, II (1900), 657.

Such an argument goes at once to the fundamentals of the cataloger's art and its interrelations with scholarship. A card catalog is a sort of perennial guessing game. At one end of the tray of cards stands the producer—the cataloger—earnestly wondering under what heading the scholar will be likely to look various things up. At the other end stands the consumer—the scholar—racking his brain to imagine how the cataloger may have classified what he wants. Often, luckily, their guesses coincide. Also, by frequent contact they tend to educate each other and to become used to each other's terminology and ways of thinking. As a matter of fact, research scholarship and subject cataloging are largely complementary professions. The generalizations of the historian or other interpretive scholar provide library science with its most important subject headings; and the cataloger, if he hopes to keep up, must read constantly and extensively in the literature of the field in which he specializes. The scholar, on the other hand, depends on the library, and more specifically on its catalog, to guide him to the material which he needs.

But there is a qualification to be made here. It is not for his own specialty, for the field in which he is already an expert, that the scholar commonly consults the subject entries of a library catalog. In his own field he depends on classified bibliographies and on periodical literature to keep himself up to date. In fact, by these means he is usually able to stay a few jumps ahead of the catalog and so criticize its shortcomings. This endears him to catalogers! But any interpretive scholar, if he has proper curiosity and originality, constantly finds his investigations leading off into fields in which he is not an expert. Here he is pretty much at the mercy of

his library's subject catalogers. From their cards, if they have prepared them well, he can, with a little acumen, see what the leading works in this new field are and what he had better read first. These are just the beginning. In scholarship, as in sin, one thing leads to another, and presently he has read or skimmed enough works in the new field to graduate from the subject catalog. From this point onward he demands of his library chiefly author-and-title service. He knows what books in this special field he would like to see and consults the catalog only to find if they are available. That is why the Union Catalog at the Library of Congress, which gives main entries only, is still one of the greatest instruments of research ever put together. It is almost the ultimate recourse of scholars who know their subjects and wish only to learn if and where certain works may be had.

#### MICROFILM ENTRIES FOR THE UNION CATALOG

The check lists that are being issued for the films in the Emergency Program have no subject entries at all, and even for author-and-title service they cannot be permanently satisfactory. For a time, and particularly for the scholars who requested the items in the first place, they will serve; but long before they have attained ten thousand entries it will become irksome to go through one list after another in the search for a particular book or manuscript. And, even if the lists are periodically cumulated, they will show only whether a work is in this particular collection. If one desires to know also whether it is in the reproductions of the Modern Language Association, in Project A, or in some other collection of the library, it will be necessary to look elsewhere. And the natural

place to look would be in the Union Catalog. Remember, magnificent as it certainly is, the Union Catalog itself is fundamentally a finding-list. It is planned on a national scale and aspires to completeness, but it is still only an author-and-title arrangement in alphabetical order. If the items in the check lists of the Emergency Program are ever to be introduced into the system of catalogs at the Library of Congress, the Union Catalog might well be the first point of contact.

As far as the printed books are concerned, the transition from the check list to the Union Catalog would be simple. The lists will presumably give merely the name of the author (if known), the title, and the imprint. If desired, the items could be cut from the published check list and pasted on cards, which would then be rubber-stamped to show location in the Library of Congress. Such cards would not be unusual in the Union Catalog. They would be similar to thousands that have been clipped from the Surgeon General's Catalogue and similar sources.<sup>2</sup>

The manuscripts are a different matter. The check lists for these, if the one already issued is to serve as a model, will not give authors and titles at all but merely the location and name of the owning library and that library's designation and number for the manuscript. These are manifestly not authors' names, nor are they subjects. Can they be regarded as titles and so be included among the entries in the Union Catalog?

<sup>2</sup> Cf. George A. Schwegmann, Jr., "The National Union Catalog in the Library of Congress," in *Union Catalogs in the United States*, ed. Robert B. Downs (Chicago: American Library Association, 1942), pp. 229-63. On pp. 237-44 are enumerated 177 book catalogs and published check lists that have been incorporated in the Union Catalog by clipping and mounting on cards. More than one and one-third million entries have been obtained by this method.

This seems at first sight to be stretching a point. Such a designation as "British Museum, Sloane Manuscript 2593" is certainly not a title in the literary sense of the term. In fact, that particular manuscript, being a collection of lyrics, has no comprehensive title except as one has been made up for it by the catalogers. But may not the designation "British Museum, Sloane Manuscript 2593" be regarded as the *title of the film*? After all, if the contents had been published in facsimile in book form, the book might conceivably have carried just such a title as that. As titles of the films, then, these designations may perhaps be taken over from the check lists of films of manuscripts and inserted, naturally with some adjustment as to form, among the entries of the Union Catalog. Here, with similar entries from other sources, they would take their place in the master finding-list of the country.

#### MICROFILM ENTRIES FOR THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS CATALOG

The check lists for the films of the Emergency Program will not compile themselves as if by magic, nor can they be converted into Union Catalog entries without a considerable amount of expert editing. These undertakings are as nothing, however, compared with the difficulty of preparing adequate entries for the regular public catalogs of the Library of Congress. The difficulty will arise out of the nature of the materials—out of their being old books and manuscripts—more than out of the fact that they are on films. Their being on films may even simplify one matter—namely, the collation. This is a detailed statement which catalogers are accustomed to make regarding the order and numbering of the pages and also, especially for the older

books, regarding the signatures or quires into which the pages are grouped. But the collation is a time-consuming thing to make, and in many cases it cannot properly be determined on the basis of the film alone. Hence, at least one university has directed its catalogers of microfilm to omit the point, and they are reported as much relieved by the omission.<sup>3</sup> Since the collation is properly an attribute of the original book, it is perfectly logical to omit it in cataloging a film copy. After all, it is the film, not the book, that is the actual subject of the entry, and the film as such has no collation.

Or ought we perhaps to consider the collation of a film as consisting of a statement of its width, the number of "frames" (i.e., of separate photographic exposures), and the "position"? These would indicate its physical makeup to anyone used to such terminology. "Po-

<sup>3</sup> Cf. Margaret F. Parmelee, "Cataloging Microfilms at the University of Michigan Library," *Journal of Documentary Reproduction*, III (1940), 232-37, with a facsimile of one of the catalog cards. They "do not usually note imperfections, missing title pages, cite authority for supplied titles, indicate the length of the film in frames, as is sometimes done in descriptions of films, mention illustrations, or give either the size of the original or the width of the film." For the most part the films are kept in the form of hundred-foot rolls. "Arrangement of the titles in the series according to classification would require cutting up the films so that there would be a single title on a strip of film. The films would be easier to use in this form, but the division would make a great deal of extra work and require much more storage space. Although the films are not arranged by class, a number in the Library of Congress Classification is assigned to each title and a card for it is placed in our shelf list, which is sometimes used as a classed catalog. The call number is not placed on the rest of the set of cards, instead the word 'Film' appears in the upper left hand corner." Toward the end of this valuable record of experience the author observes: "Aside from the fact that we do not give collation, the films are as difficult to catalog as the original old books would be, and since we have had no additional help in doing the work, it has been impossible to keep up to date in cataloging the collection."

sition" is a technical term for the relation of the direction of the writing on the one-page or two-page exposure to the lengthwise direction of the film. There is as yet no international agreement as to the numbering or other designation to be used for the four possible positions, but in this country it is customary to speak of Placements I, II, II S, and III. Placements II and III have two pages to each frame, while I and II S have only one.<sup>4</sup>

By and large, the films of printed books should not present serious difficulty to skilled catalogers used to handling early imprints. The subject classification is already in existence, and many of the authors who will be encountered have, as the term goes, been established both as to date and as to the form (often variable) of the name. The chief drawback to such cataloging will be the time it requires; and time means money. The excessive costs of cataloging are already under fire,<sup>5</sup> and the sudden introduction of perhaps ten thousand films of rare books and manuscripts into the Library of Congress will do nothing to lower the average expense per item.

Two general observations at this point are perhaps pertinent. One is that in

<sup>4</sup> For an illustration see *Journal of Documentary Reproduction*, IV (1941), 247, Fig. 1. An earlier discussion was given by Robert C. Binkley in his *Manual on Methods of Reproducing Research Materials* (Ann Arbor, Mich.: Edwards Bros., Inc., 1936), p. 145. The designation "II S" is sometimes written out as "II Single." H. H. Fussler, *Photographic Reproduction for Libraries* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942), p. 75 and Pl. II, uses for placement the simple numbers 1, 2, 3, 4.

<sup>5</sup> Cf. A. D. Oaborn, "The Crisis in Cataloging," *Library Quarterly*, XI (1941), 393-411. Mr. William A. Jackson, of the Harvard Library, in a letter of August 36, 1943, summarizes this matter as it applies to microfilms in one well-chosen sentence: "It is very hard for administrators of foundations to realize that the cost of making the microfilms is really the smallest part of the cost, if they are to be properly handled once they are made."

some sense or other the value of money has changed since, let us say, the turn of the century. Whether this change is genuinely inflationary or represents simply an increase in average cash income and scale of living is hard to say. In either case it is probably necessary, in comparing costs now and a quarter of a century ago, to make allowance for a virtual doubling of cash charges. This affects profoundly the comparative studies of the cost of cataloging.

The other observation looks in somewhat the same direction. A large catalog is like a telephone system—the more it expands, the higher is the unit cost. The telephone companies a few years ago carried on campaigns of public education to drive home the point that their business is not like others—that, as their business expands, costs do not drop but rise, and that the subscriber, while forced to pay more, receives a progressively larger, more comprehensive, and better-integrated service. The similarity between this and a catalog is obvious. As the catalog grows, the burden of adjustment increases. There are more things to look up, more possible points of contact, but also a greatly increased usefulness. For example, in a library of a thousand books there may be only one author to file under the name Smith, and there is no need to determine whether a title-page mentioning "J. Smith" really means John Smith, Jared Smith, Jehosaphat Smith, or some other. In a large library, on the other hand, there may be entries for a hundred John Smiths or a thousand Smiths.

Cultural institutions have in recent years become quite wary of accepting collections of material unless the gifts carry endowment for upkeep. The possession of the material implies an obligation to care for it, organize it, and make

it available for use; and within an already preoccupied budget this may be impossible. Some such difficulty would confront the Library of Congress in accepting the films of the Emergency Program if the Rockefeller Foundation had not recently sanctioned the use of part of the fund for the purpose of cataloging the material.

This still leaves the question open, however, as to what form of catalog is desirable and as to what degree of refinement in the cataloging is feasible.

#### MANUSCRIPT CATALOGING IN AMERICA

American libraries have done much in the calendaring or other listing of archival manuscripts, epistolary materials, personal papers, and the like, but have had relatively little occasion to deal with book manuscripts. The former are a native product, but the latter almost wholly an importation. The dominant civilization of the New World developed after the invention of printing. The book trade went over rather promptly to the form of print, whereas archival and epistolary materials long continued to be written chiefly by hand. As early as the Colonial period a few book manuscripts were brought from Europe to America, and about the beginning of the present century considerable collections began to be built up; but not before 1935 was a systematic listing of the items published. Even then they were not cataloged in any proper sense of the term. The publication was deliberately called a "Census" in recognition of its provisional character.<sup>6</sup> It

<sup>6</sup> Seymour de Ricci (ed.), with the assistance of W. J. Wilson, *Census of Medieval and Renaissance Manuscripts in the United States and Canada* (3 vols.; New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1935-40). For a brief survey of the early infiltration of European book manuscripts into America and a list of some of the special catalogs of American-owned

was hoped that it would lead, and in several instances it did lead, to a more complete cataloging of the manuscripts by the institutions owning them.

The results, however, were usually put out in book form, not on cards. Since each manuscript was unique, the possession of a single library, there was little incentive to make a co-operative enterprise of the cataloging and to spread the results abroad by means of printed cards. But now, with microfilm negatives of some six hundred book manuscripts already received from Britain and hundreds of others on the way, all of them expressly intended to be copied and sold to any purchaser, the usefulness of printed cards is much enhanced, and the cataloging might become in some sense a co-operative undertaking. If well constructed by careful catalogers at the Library of Congress or some other center of manuscript studies, the cards should be of value wherever a copy of any of the films is sent. In fact, many libraries would be likely to subscribe for complete sets of the cards simply as a bibliographical tool.<sup>7</sup> These, at a cost of a few cents each, would be much cheaper than a full duplicate run of the films and would also be more valuable to research scholars, unless the local library set to work and cataloged the films itself. It would always be known that the films, even if not available at the local library on five or six minutes' notice, could be secured from the Library of Congress within five or six days. A system of in-

manuscripts subsequent to the *Census*, see W. J. Wilson, "Medieval and Renaissance Manuscripts in America," *Catholic Bookman*, IV (1941), 257-59.

<sup>7</sup> If the present plan for multilith publication of the entire card catalog of the Library of Congress is continued, the cards for films of manuscripts, provided they are ultimately admitted to that catalog, would, of course, appear in successive supplements to the publication.

terlibrary loans of positive copies might even be instituted, or possibly an arrangement to rent them at a stated fraction of the cost of printing the positive.

Although its Catalog Division has never dealt directly with manuscripts, the Library of Congress is not wholly without experience in the field. Between 1927 and 1938, chiefly through its Card Division and its Manuscript Division, it prepared cards for some 330 of the rotographs of the Modern Language Association of America. The items were fully cataloged according to Library of Congress procedure except that no classification number was assigned. The collation of the original manuscripts is usually given but is warily stated to be "based on the facsimile." Subject entries are added, some of the commoner ones being "Manuscripts, Latin—Facsimiles" and "Manuscripts. Gt. Brit.—Facsimiles." Whether these could profitably be continued for a series of filmed facsimiles that threatens to run into the thousands is problematical. No cards were prepared for Modern Language Association items on film. Soon after the films began to arrive in large quantities, the Library of Congress undertook to renegotiate its contract with the Association, but the new agreement has not yet been announced.

Another pioneer in this general field is the University of Chicago. In 1912 it published a descriptive catalog of its manuscripts—the first American institution to perform such a service.<sup>8</sup> It has become an important center for such studies, particularly in the New Testament field, and is now issuing printed

<sup>8</sup> Edgar J. Goodspeed (ed.), with the assistance of Martin Sprengling, *A Descriptive Catalogue of Manuscripts in the Libraries of the University of Chicago* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1912). Pp. xi+128.

cards for its manuscripts. Thus far 862 of its 961 numbered items have been cataloged by this method.<sup>9</sup> The cards follow closely the Library of Congress rules. Regular call numbers are assigned, and to each is appended the indication "Mss room." Subject entries are added.

#### THE VATICAN RULES FOR INDEXING MANUSCRIPTS

A third and most important source of experience in this field is the Vatican Library, which adopted the Library of Congress classification for its printed books in 1928 and began to issue printed catalog cards at that time. The undertaking was due largely to the inspiration of Dr. W. W. Bishop, then librarian of the University of Michigan.<sup>10</sup> In recognition of the Vatican's eminence as a center of international relations, the work was subsidized by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. In 1931 a set of specific rules for the construction of the new catalog was published, and in 1939 a revised edition appeared.<sup>11</sup> An English translation of this is nearly ready for publication. Meanwhile, also under the influence of Dr. Bishop, a beginning has been made toward a card catalog of the Vatican's vastly important collection of more than sixty thousand manuscripts. The cards, however, are not multiplied by printing or by any of the near-printing methods.

<sup>9</sup> So Mr. Maurice F. Tauber writes me under date of December 18, 1942, explaining that the ninety-nine manuscripts described in the Goodspeed-Sprengel catalog have not been recataloged on cards.

<sup>10</sup> Cf. Eugène, Cardinal Tisserant, "The Preparation of a Main Index for the Vatican Library Manuscripts," in *William Warner Bishop: A Tribute*, ed. H. M. Lydenberg and Andrew Keogh (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1941), pp. 176-85.

<sup>11</sup> Biblioteca Apostolica Vaticana, *Norme per il catalogo degli stampati* (Vatican City, 1931). Pp. vii+400. 2d ed. (1939). Pp. xii+490.

They are typewritten, and, if an extra copy is desired, that too must be typewritten. Much of the advantage, therefore, which American library procedure has gained from its multiplication of cards and its use of added entries is lacking. There are no added entries on these cards. Instead, there are added cards.

After dealing with several thousand of the manuscripts, particularly among those not already described in printed catalogs, the authorities were ready in 1938 to put out a set of rules.<sup>12</sup> These were the result of patient experiment, frequent revision, and constant collaboration with specialists in various disciplines, such as canon law, civil law, classical philology, hagiography, patristics, etc. Certain disciplines, such as philosophy, liturgics, and others, are not represented in the special rules, because the experience thus far obtained has not seemed adequate. An English translation of the work would be a major service to the research libraries of America. They might find in it more really new material than in the volume of rules for printed books.

#### THE NUMERICAL AND THE CLASSIFIED CATALOGS

Partial precedents for the card catalog of manuscripts may also be found in the catalogs that have appeared in book form. These are of two main types, which for lack of a better terminology may be called the numerical and the classified, respectively. The former is the simpler and more elementary. It takes up the manuscripts of a given library or a given collection in order, one after another, as they happen to be numbered, and describes each in turn. The parts of

<sup>12</sup> Biblioteca Apostolica Vaticana, *Norme per l'indice alfabetico dei manoscritti* (Città del Vaticano: Biblioteca Apostolica Vaticana, 1938). Pp. vii+206.

any miscellaneous manuscript, comprising works by various authors, or of any composite manuscript, consisting of fragments derived from several earlier volumes but now bound together, are also described in order as they happen to occur. Whatever groupings by author, title, subject, or other category seem necessary are supplied in the index, not in the body of the work.

Other printed catalogs have been arranged on some sort of logical or historical classification. One of the earliest of these was published by Samuel Ayscough in 1782 for the Sloane Manuscripts in the British Museum.<sup>13</sup> Everything here is arranged by subject, e.g., medicine, astronomy, husbandry, etc., and then alphabetically by author under each subject. At the back of the second volume there is a table of manuscript numbers with references to the pages on which each is mentioned. In other words, this catalog, as compared with the ordinary numerical type, has put the index into the body of the work and the call numbers into the index. It is not an entirely happy arrangement. Since a high proportion of the Sloane Manuscripts contains more than one treatise, a student must frequently look up several page references before getting a comprehensive view of the nature and contents of a given volume. The Ayscough catalog, however, was a monument of erudition in its day; and, since that was before the day of the card catalog, its value as an index of contents must have been high. By a strange fatality, Scott, when he undertook to re-examine the Sloane Collection, decided to put his own results into the form of an alphabetical

index.<sup>14</sup> Many of his observations are new and important, but it is hard to locate them if one starts only with a certain Sloane number.

The Ayscough catalog is an exceptional case. Usually the first effort to describe a set of manuscripts follows the numerical plan. Later, some kind of systematic arrangement may be attempted, often covering the manuscripts of several libraries or even those of a whole country or of an entire discipline. For example, Mrs. Singer's *Catalogue of Alchemical Manuscripts* groups the various treatises topically and aims to list for each treatise all the manuscripts in Great Britain and Ireland in which it occurs.<sup>15</sup> Dr. Kuttner's *Reperitorium der Kanonistik* presents a conspectus of the existing manuscript materials on canon law, wherever found, in so far as these have yet become known.<sup>16</sup> Another and outstanding example is the universal *Catalogue of Latin Manuscripts of Aristotle*, begun by the late Georges Lacombe. Such catalogs, as compared with the simple numerical type, have a sophisticated quality. They are, in fact, important instruments of research. They assemble, for textual or historical purposes, the information that is often to be found in a multitude of earlier, numer-

<sup>13</sup> Edward J. L. Scott, *Index to the Sloane Manuscripts in the British Museum* (London, 1904). Pp. viii + 583.

<sup>14</sup> Dorothea W. Singer (ed.), assisted by Annie Anderson and Robina Addis, *Catalogue of Latin and Vernacular Alchemical Manuscripts in Great Britain and Ireland Dating from before the XVI Century* (3 vols.; Brussels: Union Académique Internationale, 1928-31).

<sup>15</sup> Stephan Kuttner, *Reperitorium der Kanonistik* (1140-1234): *Prodromus corporis glossarum*, Vol. I ("Studi e testi," Vol. 71 [Vatican City, 1937]). Pp. xx + 536. For the Aristotle catalog I regret to be unable to give an exact description. Apparently there is no copy in this country, but Dr. Kuttner remembers seeing and using at the Vatican Library in 1940 a copy of the first volume or fascicle, edited by A. Birkenmajer, formerly a resident of Kharkov

<sup>13</sup> Samuel Ayscough, *A Catalogue of the Manuscripts Preserved in the British Museum . . . Including the Collections of Sir Hans Sloane, Bart., the Rev. Thomas Birch, D.D., and about Five Hundred Volumes Bequeathed, Presented, or Purchased at Various Times* (2 vols.; London, 1782).

ically arranged catalogs, and valuable comparisons become possible. A work that is anonymous and difficult to date in one manuscript may be ascribed in another to a definite author and year.

From existing precedents, some of them on cards and some in book form, any card catalog that may be constructed for the Emergency Program's films of manuscripts may draw many lessons. This is not the place for the consideration of minute details, but certain fundamental choices require to be made. Shall the catalog tend toward the numerical or toward the classified type? Shall the films for all manuscripts, the simple as well as the composite or miscellaneous, receive their main entry under the name of the owning library and that library's designating number? Can the catalog attain its maximum usefulness as a separate entity, auxiliary to, but distinct from, the Library of Congress catalog? Must the incipit at times be admitted as an identity-determining element when both author and title fail? How much shall be done on the cards in the way of references to previous descriptions of the manuscripts?

#### THE PROBLEM OF THE MAIN ENTRY

As for the choice between a numerical and a classified arrangement, the card catalog largely by-passes that whole problem. In a printed book the chosen arrangement dominates the body of the work. There the information is set out for the reader once and for all. If he wishes to have it arranged on some different plan, say by author or subject or date or number, his only recourse is to consult the index, look up the references, and rearrange the material for himself. What the catalog in book form does by means of its index, the catalog on cards does through its added entries—and in some respects does it better.

That is to say, the added entry does not give a mere set of page references whereby the information may be looked up; it supplies a duplicate copy of the entire entry at the new point. In this way it brings together all the works of a given author; all manuscript copies, editions, translations, adaptations, abridgments, etc., of a given work; and also such subject groupings as prove desirable and manageable. In fact, a comprehensive dictionary catalog with a skilfully constructed set of added entries is the answer to the scholar's prayer.

For the most part, therefore, the dilemma of the numerical versus the classified arrangement is avoided when a catalog of manuscripts is constructed on cards; and yet one trace of it may perhaps be seen in the problem of the main entry. Shall this be by author or by the owning library's designating number? If it is by author, then the number becomes an added entry. If it is by number, then the author's name becomes an added entry. Which is better?

The Vatican, it may be observed, avoids this problem by having no printed duplicates or added entries. Instead, it simply typewrites a whole new card. For the simple manuscript consisting of one work this is entirely satisfactory, but by such a system there is nowhere a connected view of the contents of a composite manuscript made up of fragments of earlier manuscripts now bound together for convenience, or of a miscellaneous manuscript made up of a succession of treatises by one or more authors. Each fragment or treatise appears by itself, with a reference to the folios or pages which it occupies in the volume. No doubt the Vatican has inventories or other lists in which the contents of such manuscripts are given in connected form, but apparently the *Norme per l'indice alfabetico* makes no

provision for assembling this information on cards. As a result, the Vatican index becomes in this respect as atomistic as the Ayscough printed catalog.

What was done on the Modern Language Association cards in such cases is interesting. If the manuscript in question contains a single work, the main entry for the facsimile is under author (if known) and title. If the manuscript is composite in structure or miscellaneous in contents, the facsimile is entered under the name of the owning library and that library's designating number. The separate authors and treatises are then indicated by added entries. This practice seems admirable, and I would offer only one suggestion, namely, that for films of all manuscripts—the simple as well as the composite or miscellaneous—it might be well to make the main entry under the owning library and local number.

For this suggestion I can present no precedent and can foresee some objection. I would point out, however, that it involves no extra work. If the main entry is by library and local number, then the author or title is given by added entry. If the main entry is by author or title, then the owning library with its local number is given by added entry. In this respect the two methods are in even balance. Now no one, certainly, would suggest that a library should arrange a card catalog of its own manuscripts in the order of the local designating numbers. This would make of the catalog a virtual shelf list. But when a facsimile on film or paper is made and taken away from the owning library, the situation is changed. The local designation then becomes a sort of personal name for the manuscript. By that designation it is known in printed catalogs, in scholarly treatises, in collections of source materials. It would simplify the

control of the various cataloging and listing processes if this designation were everywhere made basic—in the arrangement of the published check lists, in the possible Union Catalog entries, and in the main entries for the public catalog of the Library of Congress.

#### THE PROBLEM OF THE ISOLATED CATALOG

With one important exception to be mentioned hereafter, there is apparently no useful halfway stage between the simple check-list type of entry and the full form suitable for the regular catalog of the Library of Congress. Many of these manuscripts that are coming in on film have been well cataloged, and the printed catalogs are supplied with excellent indexes. It is no real service to transform these printed descriptions into catalog cards and not supply them with at least enough added entries to take the place of the indexes. Nor is it any great service to draw up cards with all the necessary additions and leave them in an isolated catalog by themselves. Only when inserted in a fully integrated catalog like that of the Library of Congress can they attain their maximum usefulness.

An almost tragic example of this is the fate of the cards so carefully drawn up for the earlier rotographs of the Modern Language Association. These have probably been of use to certain outside libraries, and an alphabetical file of them, with the added entries duly inserted, is kept in the Division of Manuscripts; but apparently few, if any, of the 330 or more cards have ever been filed in the public catalog of the Library of Congress. They are constructed according to the regular cataloging rules, with added entries and all the rest, right up to the last stage in the process; but there the process breaks off. As we have

seen, there is no established classification and numbering for manuscripts in the Library of Congress system. Therefore, these cards have never received numbers. Accordingly, having no call numbers, they are not filed in the public catalog, though in every other respect they are ready for it.

A concrete illustration of the situation as it stands is the following. The library possesses a book containing an edition of a part of British Museum Additional Manuscript 37790. The main entry for this work is under the author's name, and by means of an added entry another copy of the card is introduced under "British Museum. *Mss.* (Additional 37790)." The Modern Language Association has a complete facsimile of this manuscript as No. 316 in its regular series, and the item has been fully cataloged on a printed card. A copy of this card would naturally appear beside the card for the book, but it is not there. Some reader of the book might be much interested to know that a facsimile of the original manuscript is available in the same building, but the public catalog does not help him to that knowledge. If it occurs to him to go to the special file in the Manuscript Division or to look in the Modern Language Association check list, he will find it; otherwise not. This is a concrete illustration of the fact that the process of cataloging on cards cannot stop halfway, or even ninety-nine hundredths of the way, to completion without losing much of its usefulness.

#### THE PROBLEM OF THE INCIPIT

Medieval scribes, it has been remarked, showed singularly little regard for the convenience of modern catalogers. They were especially careless about authors and titles. A given work may be ascribed in one manuscript to Aristotle,

in another to Hermes, in another to Egidius, while in still another it is anonymous. It is often difficult and sometimes impossible to determine who the real author was. Titles also vary. A work may even have one title prefixed to the text and a somewhat different title in the colophon at the end. Under such circumstances it has become customary among medievalists to use the opening words, technically called the "incipit," as a further indication of the identity of the work. In many respects the incipit is more reliable than the assigned author or title. But here, too, there are pitfalls. One must learn to distinguish between the incipit of the prologue (the prologue may be omitted in some copies) and the incipit of the main work. Also, if the first word, say, is "Cum," a later scribe may casually write "Quando" or "Quoniam" or some other synonym in its place. This is no help in alphabetization, and one must keep such possibilities in mind when consulting indexes of incipits. Those indexes are extremely valuable as cataloging tools but must be used with a wary eye for verbal variants.<sup>17</sup>

<sup>17</sup> E.g., A. G. Little (ed.), *Initia operum latinorum quae saeculis XIII, XIV, XV attribuuntur . . .* (Manchester: University Press, 1904). Pp. xiii+275. Also Marco Vattasso, *Initia patrum aliorumque scriptorum ecclesiasticorum latinorum . . .* (2 vols.; Rome, 1906-8). Incomplete, never published, but of great importance is B. Hauréau, "Initia operum scriptorum latinorum mediæ aevi," at Paris, Bibliothèque Nationale, MS Nouv. Acquis. Lat. 2392. In 1939 the Library of Congress attempted to secure a film copy of the dozen or so folio volumes comprising Hauréau's compilation, but there was an accidental delay and then, by reason of the war, the manuscripts were evacuated for safety. The Vatican is understood to have a handwritten copy of Hauréau. Very valuable for scientific manuscripts is the work of Lynn Thorndike and Pearl Kibre, *A Catalogue of Incipits of Mediaeval Scientific Writings in Latin* (Cambridge, Mass.: Mediaeval Academy of America, 1937). Pp. xvi+463. As Dr. Kuttner suggests, if the Library of Congress would systematically record the incipits of works in all the manuscripts which it receives on film, it would in time have a compilation rivaling that of Hauréau.

The cataloger of printed books knows something of the problems of pseudonymous, untitled, and acephalous works, but in his trade they are the exception. For the cataloger of manuscripts, on the contrary, they might almost be said to be the rule. This makes the going much rougher. There was a sort of convention among scribes to give at the beginning or, more often, in the colophon at the end a set of data more or less corresponding to the title-page of a printed book. Ideally this included, for each treatise in the volume, the author's correct name, the exact title, the scribe's name, and the date and place of copying. This ideal, however, is seldom, if ever, realized. Fortunately for the catalogers of the Emergency Program's films, the manuscripts in question have all been described in print, most of them well, though some of them quite badly. Much of the detective work, therefore, on the anonymous and pseudonymous treatises has been done, but it is always advisable to check with more recent indexes, if any have appeared in the field concerned. This is time-consuming work and really requires the services of a specialist in each of the major branches of manuscript study—liturgy, music, poetry, law, science, etc. No one scholar can be a master of all the indexes, catalogs, and other tools in all these subjects.

How to head a catalog card in some of the harder cases is a problem. Both the Vatican and the University of Chicago have at times used the incipit as an entry, and there are cases in which this seems to be inevitable. The Vatican puts the incipit in quotation marks and uses it for identification purposes but employs it only when it is not possible to refer by page and line to a printed edition of the treatise in question. The chief of

the Preparations Department at Chicago writes me:

I may say generally that the University Libraries follow closely Library of Congress rules in cataloging manuscripts. When the manuscript has no title we have used a form title in brackets and given the incipit in a note. We have used the incipit at times as the entry. In a few instances, an English title has been made up.<sup>18</sup>

It will be something of an innovation in American library practice to employ the incipit as a heading and alphabetize it as if it were an author or a title. Such use will at times be necessary, but it should be as sparing as possible. It should be a last resort, when author, title, and form title have all proved impracticable for the case in hand. A useful convention, following the practice of the Vatican, would be to place the incipit always in quotation marks, with three dots following. This will distinguish it at a glance from the other identity-determining elements.

#### NUCLEUS OF A BIBLIOGRAPHY OF MANUSCRIPT STUDIES

The proposed check-list cards for the films of manuscripts, together with cards for similar facsimiles elsewhere in the Library of Congress, might be organized into the nucleus of a comprehensive bibliography of manuscript studies—a record of the published discussions of each manuscript. For this there is great need, and, while no one living will see the task fully accomplished, a practicable beginning might be made now. Fortunately, it is not one of those enterprises which must be brought to completion before being used at all. It could be added to continually and yet be immediately useful at every stage of its development.

If the bibliography were sharply lim-

<sup>18</sup> Letter of November 19, 1942, from Mr. Maurice F. Tauber.

ited as to content, there would be no need to limit it as to dates covered or even as to languages included, provided an adequate staff could be had. The fundamental limitation would confine it to literary or book manuscripts, rejecting archival, epistolary, and other occasional materials. Archival and occasional manuscripts were produced in staggering quantities in every century of our era, but it was in the early centuries that most of the book manuscripts were produced. It would be possible, therefore, to fix an arbitrary date limit at, say, 1500 or 1600, excluding from consideration any book manuscript written later, and still cover the great bulk of this sort of material. In the more advanced countries the number of books or literary works circulated in manuscript form after 1600 falls off to a mere trickle. In Greece, on the other hand, books and treatises continued to be so circulated down into the seventeenth or even the eighteenth century. The same is true of Muscovite Russia, of China, and particularly of India. It would seem better, therefore, not to set any arbitrary limit but to include all strictly literary material of whatever date if it circulated in manuscript form. As for geographical range, this ultimately would be set by the number of available persons able to work in the various languages.

A beginning toward all this may be made with the check-list cards for the Emergency Program's films of book manuscripts. If these are arranged, as suggested above, according to owning library and designating number, they will lend themselves readily to the compilation of a card bibliography of manuscript studies. The data thus accumulated should be of great assistance in the subsequent cataloging of the films concerned. In fact, this is the one useful

halfway stage that can be envisaged between the check list or possible Union Catalog entry, on the one hand, and full Library of Congress catalog cards, on the other.

The indexers of the Vatican manuscripts, since they were dealing chiefly with uncataloged material, had little occasion to refer to previously printed descriptions. When possible, they referred to printed editions in which the treatise in question had been published, but such publication has usually been based on some other manuscript copy. The University of Chicago catalogers of manuscripts, in so far as I have seen their cards, seem not to have given any references to printed descriptions. On the other hand, the catalogers of the Modern Language Association rotographs seem to have made a point of giving such references. So also did the *Census of Medieval and Renaissance Manuscripts*, despite the summary character of many of its entries. The Subject Cataloging Division of the Library of Congress sets great store by such references and will doubtless include the more important of them on its cards if it ever undertakes to deal with manuscript materials systematically.

The Library of Congress catalogers who handled the material of the Modern Language Association, back in the days when it used photostats or photographs, were accustomed to do the handsome thing in this particular. They not merely referred to printed descriptions of the manuscript or rare book; they copied them off by typewriter or photostat and placed the copy in the bound volume. For the present program it would be possible to imitate this service by photographing the printed descriptions on pieces of film and splicing these in at the beginning of the strip. But the time, trouble, and expense for this would be

considerable. It is probably sufficient merely to supply the references.

The bibliography that is here being suggested is not to be thought of as confined to the obvious references. The films in question have usually been requested on the basis of the obvious references, and any competent investigator will either know those already or know enough to look them up at once. But the description, let us say, of Add. MS 14408 in the 1843 *Catalogue of Additions to the Manuscripts in the British Museum* is not the conclusion of studies on that volume; it is more likely to have been the beginning. In what later special catalogs has the manuscript been described? What editions of texts have used it as a source? What books, monographs, or periodical articles rely importantly on the historical evidence which it supplies? It will be necessary here to exercise some discretion. Not every passing mention of one of these manuscripts, not every casual inclusion of its number in some list, deserves recording in the proposed bibliography. Only treatments which contribute something tangible to our knowledge of its date, circumstances, purpose, history, influence, and the like should be admitted. In order to secure reasonable uniformity of selection, it would be advisable, at least at the start, to have all the references submitted to the judgment of one person or of a small group working very closely in harmony. Later, as the field widened and the standards of the bibliography became fixed, the responsibility for various sections of it—particularly for certain language groups—would need to be delegated.

While a trained staff for the selection and organization of material would be essential, much could doubtless be done by voluntary co-operation. For example, the scholars who have re-

quested and will first use the present set of films are in most cases familiar with the previous treatments of the manuscripts in question and could supply bibliographies of them with probably less effort than anyone else. How many would be willing to do so? If the matter were presented to them in the right light as a disinterested effort for the convenience of all students of manuscripts, the percentage of co-operation should be high. There would be gaps, but these would not destroy the usefulness of what was recorded. The control staff would, of course, make every effort to fill in such gaps, and no scholar would be allowed to imagine that the coverage was complete. A concise statement of the plans for the bibliography might be printed with each check list, possibly accompanied by a few  $3 \times 5$  printed slips on which references might be returned. If scholars were asked individually to supply references on the manuscripts which they were actually using or planning to use, the response would be greater than if they were appealed to generally and a bit vaguely for the good of the cause. The productive scholars of the country would doubtless welcome the establishment of a central clearing-house of this sort and would in time become accustomed both to consulting it and to contributing to it.

The fundamental arrangement of the cards would naturally be geographical—first by country (or recognized territorial unit), then by city, then by library or other institution. After that, the classification actually used in the owning library would have to be followed, whether it happened to be by collection and number, by subject group and number, by language group and number, or by simple inventory or accession number. It would be necessary, of course, to supply cross-references for the name of

every city, every institution, and every collection, indicating the grouping under which it must be sought. The obvious thing, in all doubtful cases, would be to follow the specifications already established by the Library of Congress in its cataloging of published facsimiles of manuscripts.

#### METHODS OF EXPANDING THE BIBLIOGRAPHY

If such a card bibliography proved feasible for the several thousand films of manuscripts in the Emergency Program, there are several ways in which it could be expanded to give more complete coverage. For one thing, there is the extension which may naturally be expected in the copying program itself. At the close of the war the program may pass over to a more or less permanent basis. It might then be possible to abandon the selective principle and take consecutive runs of films for whole collections or even for whole libraries. From the point of view of the photographing, accessioning, listing, cataloging, and administering of the material, it would be an enormous advantage to have, for example, a complete reproduction, instead of a scattered representation, of the approximately five thousand Sloane Manuscripts of the British Museum. Under the pressure of the emergency and the sense of haste, this sort of choice was judged undesirable. The prediction is freely made that in the course of time the library will have more films than it has printed books, and as the numbers increase the need will be increasingly felt for the making of consecutive runs. The day may well come, though not in our lifetime, when all the manuscripts in the British Museum will be represented by some kind of facsimile in the Library of Congress. In fact, the ultimate goal, of course, is the copying of all the million

or so of book manuscripts that are conjectured to exist in the libraries of the world.

Aside from the expansion of the copying program, and preferably in advance of it, there is another direction in which the proposed bibliography of manuscript studies might be extended. There are in the United States many other collections of copies of manuscripts, some small and scattering, others large and well integrated. One of the outstanding examples is the film collection made with his own camera by Dr. Sigerist, the director of the Institute of the History of Medicine at Johns Hopkins University.<sup>19</sup> This aims to cover the ancient and the early medieval writers on medicine. Harvard University has a large collection of facsimiles—some on paper and some on film—of biblical and patristic manuscripts, assembled under the inspiration of Professor Kirsopp Lake and to a considerable extent copied with his own camera. It is known as the J. P. Morgan, Jr., Collection, after the name of the original donor. If cards for these and other collections could be added to the proposed card file at the Library of Congress, its usefulness would be much enhanced. Even if the cards for these outside collections remained for a considerable time without the addition of bibliographical references, they would still serve as an invaluable check list of material already existing in this country. Much needless duplication might thus be avoided.

A word of caution may be offered here. Many scholars, for their own purposes, have secured copies of a few pages of various manuscripts. They have been collecting texts, commonly in order

<sup>19</sup> Cf. H. E. Sigerist, "The Medical Literature of the Early Middle Ages," *Bulletin of the Institute of the History of Medicine*, II (1934), 26-50; also a continuation on pp. 559-613.

to prepare an edition, of some specific treatise as found in a number of different places. Such scholars are the best possible source for bibliographical references, and their support and co-operation are to be cultivated at all costs. On the other hand, it is hard to see how their partial facsimiles can profitably be included in the proposed bibliographical list. Probably only complete films, photostats, or other copies ought to be admitted. If the entire volume is not available somewhere in this country, then it will need sooner or later to be filmed; and it will be much simpler and less expensive to have it filmed in its entirety than to attempt to issue instructions to the photographer to copy only certain parts. One foresees endless complications if the proposed bibliography tries to take account of incomplete copies of manuscripts. Here, as elsewhere, the complete volume would seem to be the only feasible unit of operation.

Another extension of the list is possible. There are in this country several thousand original manuscripts, and every year the number somewhat increases. That it will increase with great rapidity after the present war, as it did after the previous war, is not certain but probable. Might cards for these also be included in the bibliography of manuscript studies? If so, then the coverage would become really comprehensive. The cards would aim to represent all complete book manuscripts—whether originals, photostats, photographs, films, or other sorts of facsimile—in the libraries of the United States and Canada. One stipulation might perhaps be made, namely, that the material in question should be available to scholarly investigation, either by personal visit or by means of some form of copying. This would require correspondence with the institu-

tions or with the individual owners, but it would seem best in any case to secure their permission before including their manuscripts in the bibliographical list.

#### A GUIDE TO CATALOGS AND COLLECTIONS OF MANUSCRIPTS

To crown such an undertaking one thing more would be needed, namely, the sort of bibliographical guide to catalogs and collections of manuscripts which was proposed by the late Seymour de Ricci on June 3, 1939, and laid before the American Council of Learned Societies by Dr. Waldo G. Leland in a communication dated two days later.<sup>20</sup> The author observes in the proposal:

Strange to say, considering the importance of manuscript evidence in almost every branch of culture, there is not in existence a reliable handbook containing a list of the known collections of manuscripts, with some kind of bibliography of the catalogues in which they are described.

The limitations of the two existing general lists are explained, and two handbooks—one covering the manuscripts of the British Museum and the other those of the Vatican—are mentioned. Gabrieli's valuable survey of the manuscripts in the libraries of Italy<sup>21</sup> is not referred to, doubtless because it had not yet come to the writer's attention. Since De Ricci's appended specimen deals with the col-

<sup>20</sup> Seymour de Ricci, "Proposals for a Bibliography of Catalogues of Manuscripts" (Paris, June 3, 1939), 7 mimeographed pages, with a covering page by Waldo G. Leland (Paris, June 5, 1939).

<sup>21</sup> Giuseppe Gabrieli, *Notizie statistiche storiche bibliografiche delle collezioni di manoscritti oggi conservati nelle biblioteche italiane* (Milan, 1936). Pp. 227. The most valuable general guide thus far produced, though its emphasis is predominantly on manuscripts of the classical authors, is Wilhelm Weinberger, "Wegweiser durch die Sammlungen althistorischer Handschriften," in *Sitzungsberichte der Wiener Akademie*, Vol. CCIX, Abhandlung 4 (1930). Pp. 136. Reviewed by E. K. Rand in *Speculum*, VI (1931), 639.

lections of the Biblioteca Nazionale in Florence, it is interesting and instructive to compare his treatment with Gabrieli's. The latter may have intentionally omitted certain catalogs existing only in manuscript form, but it is hard to understand his failure to mention the Fondo dei Conventi Soppressi, with 2,227 manuscripts, and the Libreria del Conte Luigi Passerini, with 233.

De Ricci thus explains his method:

Ever since 1901, I have been endeavoring to examine closely as many printed catalogues of manuscripts as I could lay my hands upon and the result is a collection of notes which, although still in many places fragmentary, already does much to cover the field. My object has been, for each library, to draft, in a few words, the outline of its historical development, followed by statistics as to its present holdings in manuscripts and a list of the printed (and not infrequently manuscript) catalogues which have been compiled at any time.

The order in which my notes are classified is geographical, by countries, and in each country, alphabetical. I have attempted to eliminate all repositories containing only archive material, although the line is often difficult to draw. My notes aim only to include publications which actually take the form of a catalogue, although again, in the case of libraries owning only one or a few stray items, the distinction between a catalogue and a monograph is not always easy to draw.

What is there proposed is, of course, a publication in book form. It is evident, however, that essentially the same material might be arranged on cards in the proposed bibliography of manuscript studies. For each country the general catalogs of its manuscripts would first be described succinctly, then those for each institution, then those for each special collection, and finally would come the cards for the separate manuscripts, each with its own references as previously suggested. The total result should be a useful and instructive survey progress-

ing always from the general to the particular.

As even so learned and indefatigable a scholar as De Ricci observed, the task is too great for any single individual or any single institution. But, if properly directed, it could hope to command the respect and the co-operation of many individuals and many institutions. The Library of Congress already possesses a notable collection of printed catalogs of manuscripts, but the mere assembling of a file of its cards for these works would not suffice. Evaluation and concise historical presentation must be added. In America at the present time are several of the greatest living authorities on various parts of the manuscript field, and to their critical judgment the various statements could doubtless be submitted. In some cases they might draw them up. And, for catalogs not available at the Library of Congress, microphotography could be summoned to aid. It has already been arranged to film the handwritten catalog of manuscripts at the British Museum. Copies of other catalogs in handwritten form could also doubtless be secured from many if not all important libraries, together with films of rare and unusual printed catalogs.

These are long-term goals capable of being attained only in times of peace, but even now it is doubtless well to be laying plans for them. Someone, observing sadly the racial and cultural divisions of Europe, has remarked that only in America has it been possible to develop anything that can properly be termed a European race and a European civilization. Perhaps the compilation of a complete bibliographical catalog of the priceless manuscript records of Europe also awaits American execution, with the microfilm copy as the medium.

## THE PUBLIC LIBRARY IN DEPRESSION<sup>1</sup>

MARGARET M. HERDMAN

BETWEEN the years 1930 and 1935 the public libraries of the United States reacted somewhat uniformly to the combined influences of smaller appropriations and larger demands. A description of the nature and varying extent of this response should aid the administrator with his perennial problem of extracting the maximum services from any appropriation. A knowledge of the effect of various economies in expenditures for books, salaries, maintenance, and other essentials on the service to the community should help to prepare the profession for the lean years which some responsible prophets see ahead.

This study is concerned with describing certain aspects of the public libraries' response to the more typical influences of economic depression. The description is based primarily on data supplied by 150 libraries reporting throughout the period 1930-35. The libraries represent all regions of the country and all sizes of libraries. Equal representation has been achieved in part by selective sampling, and the sample agrees closely enough with other available samples to justify confidence in the findings.

The data were secured from two schedules submitted by the Graduate Library School in 1932 and in 1936 to a selected list of public libraries. The returns were supplemented by data gathered through correspondence with libraries, from the files of the Graduate Library School, and from library reports, government docu-

ments, the reports of special boards and surveys, and professional literature.

The data are grouped by volume size, city size, and region. By volume size there are four groups, ranging from 10,000 volumes and under to 200,000 volumes and over. There are eight groups by size of community population, from 2,500 and under to 500,000 and over. The grouping by five regions is used for comparison with other regional changes. The Mountain region is omitted from regional descriptions because of the small number of libraries included in the sample. The Chicago Public Library is omitted from the Middle West, and the District of Columbia Public Library is omitted from the South, because the large size of these libraries imposes their depression patterns, which are not typical, upon the group.

The comparisons are shown by index numbers, based on the year 1930, for expenditures and circulation and are shown by the percentages of the totals for different classes of expenditures and circulation. Index numbers and expenditure and circulation percentages of totals, except where specifically indicated by date, are the average of the indices and percentages of the four volume-size groups. The three-month recorded circulations are used in calculating the percentages of the total circulation composed of different classes of books.

The onset of the depression is usually dated from the fall of 1929. But the depression was not felt by many cities until 1931, the date of the international slump; and the stock market did not reach its

<sup>1</sup> The essential portion of a dissertation submitted to the Graduate Library School of the University of Chicago in March, 1941, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

lowest points until 1932 and 1933. The period 1930-35 is here chosen for study because municipal institutions did not begin reducing budgets generally until 1931. Selection of 1935 as the terminal year of the study by no means implies that this year marks the end of the depression. But 1935 does show a definite and general improvement in library expenditures as well as in expenditures for other community institutions.

One report on the library during depression has already been made.<sup>2</sup> It was concerned with certain effects of reduced expenditures upon the public library and with the economies effected by the library. A description of library service during the depression in 140 village-centered, rural communities is given in *Rural Trends in Depression Years*,<sup>3</sup> and a brief description of one library appears in *Middletown in Transition*.<sup>4</sup>

A description of the public library may properly include some account of its service to the community. Without attempting to evaluate such service, we may describe certain changes in the library resulting from its efforts to meet larger demands with less money. The library contributes differently to different communities; but, under any conditions, the library as a municipal institution meets certain usual demands, as do other municipal institutions. The degree to which the demands are met depends essentially upon the general prosperity.

The first topic to be discussed in this study is variations in library circulation.

<sup>2</sup> Douglas Waples, Leon Carnovsky, and William M. Randall, "The Public Library in the Depression," *Library Quarterly*, II (1932), 321-43.

<sup>3</sup> Edmund deS. Brunner and Irving Lorge (New York: Columbia University Press, 1937), pp. 204-14.

<sup>4</sup> Robert S. and Helen M. Lynd (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1937), pp. 252-57, 569-72.

The next deals with expenditures. Following that, the relation of library expenditures to circulation is described. Next, certain influences of the economic and social changes of the period upon the library are suggested. Finally, some implications for the library administrator are summarized.

#### LIBRARY CIRCULATION

The factors which increase and decrease library circulation are as complex and varied as are library book collections, the people who use libraries and those who administer them, and the communities which the libraries serve. To isolate any one factor to which a certain increase of circulation could be attributed would be difficult and unsafe. Seldom could the change be ascribed to only one factor, for in circulation all factors combine. It is one way, however, to describe what happened to library book circulation during depression. This section presents only a few basic facts, summarized by six major generalizations.

1. *Total library circulation was higher in 1935 than in 1930; 1932 and 1933 were peak years.*—As shown by the index numbers in Table 1, this generalization holds for all regions and all city-size groups, with the single exception of cities of 500,000 and over. It holds also for all five geographic regions. One should note that, in this table and elsewhere throughout the study, 1930 is the base year, with an index of 100. Changes for subsequent years are made by adding to or subtracting from 100 the percentage of increase or decrease. In general, the public libraries throughout the country loaned more books during this period than during any previous five-year period. In the 150 libraries studied, the increase in total circulation was most marked during the years 1932 and 1933. Circulation

reached a peak in the smallest and largest cities during 1932 and in other cities during 1933. It is hard to say how much of this difference is due to the fact that the fiscal year of many libraries begins in the spring or in the fall rather than in January, and how much is due to the date of the actual increase in circulation in the different localities. Other aspects

TABLE 1  
TOTAL CIRCULATION INDEX OF LIBRARIES BY  
CITY SIZE AND BY REGION FOR  
THE YEARS 1931-35  
(Base Year, 1930 = 100)

	TOTAL CIRCULATION INDEX				
	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
<b>By city size:</b>					
2,500 and under.....	115	121	116	111	103
2,500- 5,000.....	114	126	137	126	124
5,000- 10,000.....	113	127	135	126	120
10,000- 25,000.....	114	131	137	129	123
25,000- 50,000.....	114	128	137	131	126
50,000-100,000.....	114	131	156	139	128
100,000-500,000.....	116	142	126	121	118
500,000 and over.....	110	115	104	96	93
Total.....	113	127	127	118	114
<b>By region:</b>					
New England.....	112	125	126	118	113
Middle Atlantic.....	110	122	115	106	103
Middle West.....	109	117	120	112	110
South.....	115	132	131	123	120
Pacific.....	109	121	125	119	112

of the depression noted later suggest that the peaks of library circulation were more pronounced wherever the economic collapse was earliest and most far-reaching.

After the years 1932-33 total circulation decreased in most libraries. Rarely, however, did the circulation decline enough to offset the initial gain. The gain in total circulation in 1935 is not fully explained by increase in population, since population increased 4 per cent between 1930 and 1935, whereas circulation increased 14 per cent (see Table 1).

In three of the five regions the largest circulation occurred in 1932. These were the Middle Atlantic, the Middle West, and the South. The difference in amount of circulation in 1932 and 1933 in two of these regions, the Middle West and the South, is small. In two regions, New England and the Pacific, the largest circulation occurred in 1933. The two regions with the smallest increase in public library circulation, the Middle Atlantic and the Middle West, are those in which relatively large increases in number of school libraries and in book stocks of school libraries were reported for 1934.<sup>5</sup> Such increases may go far to explain the relatively small circulation of the public libraries in these regions. The South, which shows the largest relative increase in circulation in 1935, increased most in population.<sup>6</sup>

The definite tendency toward a general increase in total library circulation is thus apparent. But probably more important than changes in total circulation are the shifts in the component parts of library circulation; for example, adult and juvenile circulation and the circulation of fiction and nonfiction. The facts regarding such shifts appear in this section. Table 2 shows the shifts by means of index numbers, which support the following discussion.

2. *Between 1930 and 1935 adult circulation increased and juvenile circulation declined.*—In all regions except the Pacific the public library circulated fewer books to children in 1935 than in 1930. Two conditions doubtless contributed to

<sup>5</sup> U.S. Bureau of Education, *Biennial Survey of Education, 1928-30* (Washington: Government Printing Office), II, 776-77, Table 52; "Public High Schools, 1933-34," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1932-34*, chap. v, p. 75, Table 53.

<sup>6</sup> Between 1930 and 1940 for this sample the increase was 17 per cent.

this decline in juvenile circulation. First, there was the small but definite decrease of 1.76 per cent in the number of children enrolled in elementary schools between

TABLE 2  
ADULT FICTION AND NONFICTION AND JUVENILE FICTION AND NONFICTION INDICES BY REGION FOR THE YEARS 1931-35  
(Base Year, 1930 = 100)

REGION AND TYPE OF CIRCULATION	CIRCULATION INDEX				
	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
<b>New England:</b>					
Adult fiction.....	116	137	140	134	126
Adult nonfiction.....	109	124	145	134	130
Juvenile fiction.....	111	116	111	102	98
Juvenile nonfiction.....	110	121	104	90	94
Total.....	112	125	126	118	113
<b>Middle Atlantic:</b>					
Adult fiction.....	114	130	131	116	107
Adult nonfiction.....	109	133	127	121	120
Juvenile fiction.....	114	118	114	102	94
Juvenile nonfiction.....	107	110	89	79	74
Total.....	110	122	115	106	103
<b>Middle West:</b>					
Adult fiction.....	117	138	135	127	122
Adult nonfiction.....	114	132	134	129	133
Juvenile fiction.....	111	114	100	94	94
Juvenile nonfiction.....	108	115	103	102	104
Total.....	109	117	116	112	110
<b>South:</b>					
Adult fiction.....	112	132	137	115	109
Adult nonfiction.....	120	131	129	125	121
Juvenile fiction.....	121	136	104	94	94
Juvenile nonfiction.....	134	131	104	98	99
Total.....	115	132	131	123	120
<b>Pacific:</b>					
Adult fiction.....	116	130	132	121	110
Adult nonfiction.....	115	134	103	148	154
Juvenile fiction.....	112	110	127	123	118
Juvenile nonfiction.....	106	108	127	130	119
Total.....	109	121	125	119	112
<b>All regions:</b>					
Adult fiction.....	114	135	136	123	115
Adult nonfiction.....	116	141	142	132	132
Juvenile fiction.....	110	116	107	100	96
Juvenile nonfiction.....	108	120	113	105	99
Total.....	113	127	127	118	114

1931 and 1934.<sup>7</sup> Second, elementary-school libraries during this period were increasing in number and in the size of their book collections.<sup>8</sup> Thus, not only was the number of children declining, but their book needs were being met by more and better school libraries.

A corollary to the decline in juvenile circulation is the smaller ratio of juvenile circulation to total circulation (see Table 3). In all five regions the percentage of circulation which was juvenile declined; in all regions except the Pacific this decline was sharp. The ratio of the juvenile

TABLE 3  
JUVENILE CIRCULATION SHOWING PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL CIRCULATION BY REGION FOR THE YEARS 1930 AND 1935

Region	1930	1935
New England.....	41.58	34.52
Middle Atlantic.....	37.21	32.21
Middle West.....	42.67	36.89
South.....	37.09	33.39
Pacific.....	32.23	31.78

to the total circulation is lower in the Pacific than in any other of the five regions. This region has about 16 per cent fewer children five to seventeen years of age in the total population than any other region.<sup>9</sup> The school libraries in this region are good and have been good for many years.

The ratio of adult circulation to total circulation is largest in the two regions having the highest proportion of their

<sup>7</sup> U.S. Bureau of Education, "Statistics of State School Systems," *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States* (Washington: Government Printing Office), 1931-32, Table 4; 1933-34, Table 5.

<sup>8</sup> Edith A. Lathrop, "School Library Service," in U.S. Office of Education, *Development in Educational Method, 1934-36* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1936), p. 47.

<sup>9</sup> U.S. Bureau of Education, "Statistics of State School Systems."

population over seventeen years of age—the Pacific and the Atlantic<sup>10</sup>—and in the South, where children's libraries are poor and few in number.

By 1935 adult fiction circulation had increased in the different regions from 7 to 26 per cent over 1930, and adult non-fiction had increased from 20 to 54 per cent. Table 2 shows the variations in adult fiction and nonfiction circulation which are discussed in the following section.

TABLE 4

ADULT FICTION AND NONFICTION CIRCULATION SHOWING PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL CIRCULATION BY REGION FOR 1931-35

REGION	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL CIRCULATION				
	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
New England:					
Adult fiction	44.05	46.21	48.69	48.55	46.86
Adult nonfiction	15.03	15.22	17.13	17.49	18.60
Middle Atlantic:					
Adult fiction	41.80	42.58	43.85	43.06	42.15
Adult nonfiction	21.68	23.69	23.09	24.46	25.63
Middle West:					
Adult fiction	30.03	41.32	42.36	41.76	40.40
Adult nonfiction	19.62	20.26	21.01	21.82	22.70
South:					
Adult fiction	41.70	44.10	49.28	46.54	45.41
Adult nonfiction	18.70	18.40	19.45	21.06	21.20
Pacific:					
Adult fiction	51.25	52.79	49.13	47.90	45.98
Adult nonfiction	17.52	18.75	20.75	20.19	22.21

*3. Circulation of adult nonfiction increased relatively more than the circulation of adult fiction.*—Both adult nonfiction and fiction circulation reached peaks in the years 1932-33. Afterward the circulation of adult fiction decreased regularly to 1935 in most libraries, while adult nonfiction circulation decreased and then increased again.

Increase in population is not the only reason for increase in total library circulation, but it does explain the increase in individual libraries. It also explains the increase and variation in circulation in

<sup>10</sup> *Ibid.*

some of the regions. In the Pacific region, for example, with its larger educational and cultural interests, increase of population<sup>11</sup> helps to explain the increase in total circulation and the large increase in adult nonfiction circulation.<sup>12</sup> In the South, where population had its greatest increase,<sup>13</sup> the increase in population goes far to explain the increase in total circulation but does not explain the increase in adult nonfiction, for the library in this section is the traditional source of literature and fiction.<sup>14</sup> In New England, the Middle Atlantic, and the Middle West the population increase has far less to do with the regional variations.

Another way of describing the increase in adult nonfiction circulation is to say that the ratio of adult nonfiction to total circulation increased steadily throughout the period 1930-35. This is necessarily true since, as we have seen, juvenile circulation declined and adult nonfiction increased more than adult fiction. The percentages of adult nonfiction circulation are shown by years and by regions in Table 4. With few exceptions, one notes the steady increase in the nonfiction percentage. The highest proportions of adult nonfiction circulation throughout the depression period are always found in the Middle Atlantic and the Middle West, and the lowest in New England.

An even more striking variation in the ratio of adult nonfiction circulation to

<sup>11</sup> In the library sample the population of the Pacific region in 1930 was 176,086; in 1940 it was 196,087—an index of 112.

<sup>12</sup> Louis R. Wilson, *The Geography of Reading* (Chicago: American Library Association and University of Chicago Press, 1938), pp. 290-321.

<sup>13</sup> In the library sample the population of the South in 1930 was 653,059; in 1940 it was 766,029—an index of 117.

<sup>14</sup> Louis R. Wilson and Edward A. Wight, *County Library Service in the South* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935), p. 203.

total circulation appears when the data are classed by library-size groups. Table 5 shows a definite and marked increase in the percentage of adult nonfiction circulated as the libraries increase in size. In the libraries of over 200,000 volumes the adult nonfiction proportion is 77 per cent greater than in the libraries with under 10,000 volumes. Yet, as Table 5 shows, the index numbers for adult non-fiction circulation increased much more rapidly between 1930 and 1935 than the indices for adult fiction in all size groups.

TABLE 5

ADULT FICTION AND NONFICTION CIRCULATION INDEX AND ADULT NONFICTION PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL BY SIZE OF LIBRARY FOR 1935  
(Base Year, 1930 = 100)

Library Size in Volumes	Adult Fiction Index	Adult Nonfiction Index	Adult Nonfiction Percentage of Total
10,000 and under...	115	135	14.05
10,000-50,000....	118	139	18.18
50,000-200,000....	121	134	21.68
200,000 and over....	104	119	24.82

It is evident that nonfiction books were in relatively greater demand not only where they were most abundant but also where the effects of the depression were most far-reaching—that is, in the larger libraries of the larger cities. The larger city also stimulates nonfiction readers by virtue of its wider and richer contacts with ideas; its library collections more nearly cover the serious interests of its readers, and its crowded high-school and college libraries are inadequate for students. Also, the larger city supplies fiction from so many sources other than the public library that the demands upon the library for fiction are proportionately reduced.

Unlike circulation to adults, circulation to children shows very little varia-

tion, as will be seen by referring again to Table 2.

4. *No definite circulation trends are discernible in the ratio of juvenile fiction to juvenile nonfiction.*—In general, both types of juvenile circulation decline in all regions except the Pacific, in which both juvenile fiction and nonfiction in-

TABLE 6

JUVENILE FICTION AND NONFICTION CIRCULATION SHOWING PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL AND INDEX BY SIZE OF LIBRARY FOR 1930 AND 1935  
(Base Year, 1930 = 100)

LIBRARY SIZE IN VOLUMES	1930		1935	
	Per- cent- age of Total	In- dex	Per- cent- age of Total	In- dex
<b>10,000 and under:</b>				
Juvenile fiction.....	28.87	100	24.58	95
Juvenile nonfiction.....	8.15	100	8.20	112
<b>10,000-50,000:</b>				
Juvenile fiction.....	23.80	100	20.99	101
Juvenile nonfiction.....	13.85	100	11.83	98
<b>50,000-200,000:</b>				
Juvenile fiction.....	21.74	100	18.66	98
Juvenile nonfiction.....	14.52	100	12.07	95
<b>200,000 and over:</b>				
Juvenile fiction.....	20.91	100	18.52	91
Juvenile nonfiction.....	18.53	100	16.93	94

creased, and the Middle West, in which juvenile nonfiction increased. Table 6 shows that this generalization also fits all library-size groups, except the group of 10,000 volumes and under, in which juvenile nonfiction increased, and the group of 10,000-50,000 volumes, in which juvenile fiction did not decrease. These facts suggest that the decline in juvenile circulation from the public library, as already pointed out, results from the organization of elementary-school libraries as well as from the declining population of this age group.

As library circulation is a product of library borrowers, it is pertinent to this study to discover the changes, if any, in numbers of library borrowers. Table 7 shows the index numbers for these changes.

*5. The number of library borrowers increased in 1930-35.*—This generalization applies to all library-size groups and all regions. In the two smallest size groups the borrowers increased steadily in num-

ber to 1935. In the size group of 50,000-200,000 volumes the proportion of registered borrowers to population was 34 per cent. It is reasonable to suggest that the lower proportion of registered borrowers in the larger cities is related to the greater availability of free and inexpensive entertainment and recreation.

Among the geographic regions, borrowers increased most in the South and least in the Pacific, where, however, they had a steady gain. In the Middle West, too, there was a steady gain. In the

TABLE 7

TOTAL BORROWERS INDEX BY VOLUME SIZE  
AND BY REGION FOR THE YEARS 1931-35  
(Base Year, 1930 = 100)

	TOTAL BORROWERS INDEX				
	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
<b>By volume size:</b>					
10,000 and under.....	112	125	125	131	134
10,000- 50,000.....	106	114	116	119	124
50,000-200,000.....	110	117	118	117	117
200,000 and over.....	109	115	118	115	109
<b>By region:</b>					
New England.....	116	149	116	111	113
Middle Atlantic.....	114	124	132	127	117
Middle West.....	106	111	111	112	112
South.....	115	130	125	126	125
Pacific.....	102	103	106	104	108

ber to 1935. In libraries of over 200,000 volumes the increase in borrowers over 1930 (18 per cent) in 1933 was twice as large as it was in 1935.

By 1935 borrowers had increased most in the smallest libraries and least in the largest, with a regular decrease in the size of the index numbers from smallest to largest libraries. The evidence shows that the percentage of the population registered as library borrowers is highest in the small cities and lowest in the large cities. For example, in 1935 the number of registered borrowers in libraries of less than 10,000 volumes was 54 per cent of the population; in libraries of over 200,-

TABLE 8  
TOTAL VOLUMES INDEX BY SIZE OF LIBRARY  
FOR 1931-35  
(Base Year, 1930 = 100)

LIBRARY SIZE IN VOLUMES	TOTAL VOLUMES INDEX				
	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
10,000 and under.....	100	103	106	108	111
10,000- 50,000.....	105	100	112	114	117
50,000-200,000.....	106	111	115	117	120
200,000 and over.....	105	107	107	108	110

South and in New England borrowers were more numerous in 1932 than in any other year. In the Middle Atlantic the index reached a peak in 1933. The method of keeping borrowers' records is so unstandardized that it is rather hazardous to impute any statistical significance to these differences, but they might well reflect differences in unemployment and population increases. They apparently conform to variations and increases in the proportions of children five to seventeen years of age in the population.

Book stock is another factor upon which library circulation depends. The available data make it possible to discuss only the changes in total holdings, which are shown by the index numbers of Table 8.

6. *The book stocks of public libraries increased regularly from 1930 to 1935.*—In all library-size groups and in all regions the number of volumes increased regularly during the period. The number of volumes increased the least (6 per cent) in New England and the most (20 per cent) in the Pacific. In library-size groups the greatest increase for the five-year period was in the book stock of libraries of 50,000–200,000 volumes (20 per cent) and the smallest increase was in the stocks of the libraries of 200,000 volumes or more (10 per cent). One would naturally expect the differences to be explained by the varying proportions of expenditures for books, and this is later shown to be true.

*Summary.*—The noteworthy facts about public library circulation during the depression are briefly summarized in graphic form in Figures 1–8, which plot the rise and fall of circulation and other measures noted in this section. Each figure takes 1930 as a base of 100 and shows percentage variations from the base from year to year. The figures are for the entire sample of 150 libraries.

Throughout the period the number of books added to the libraries exceeded the number withdrawn, but this growing total book stock did not carry circulation continuously upward with it.

The number of borrowers increased 20 per cent between 1930 and 1932 and then held its own with a loss of only 1 per cent for the next three years. Clearly, libraries gained many new patrons during the depression, although the average borrower read fewer books per year in 1935 than he did in 1930.

A glance at Figures 1–5 shows that the general pattern for total circulation and for the various subdivisions of circulation is roughly similar. There is a rapid rise to a peak in 1932–33, followed by a

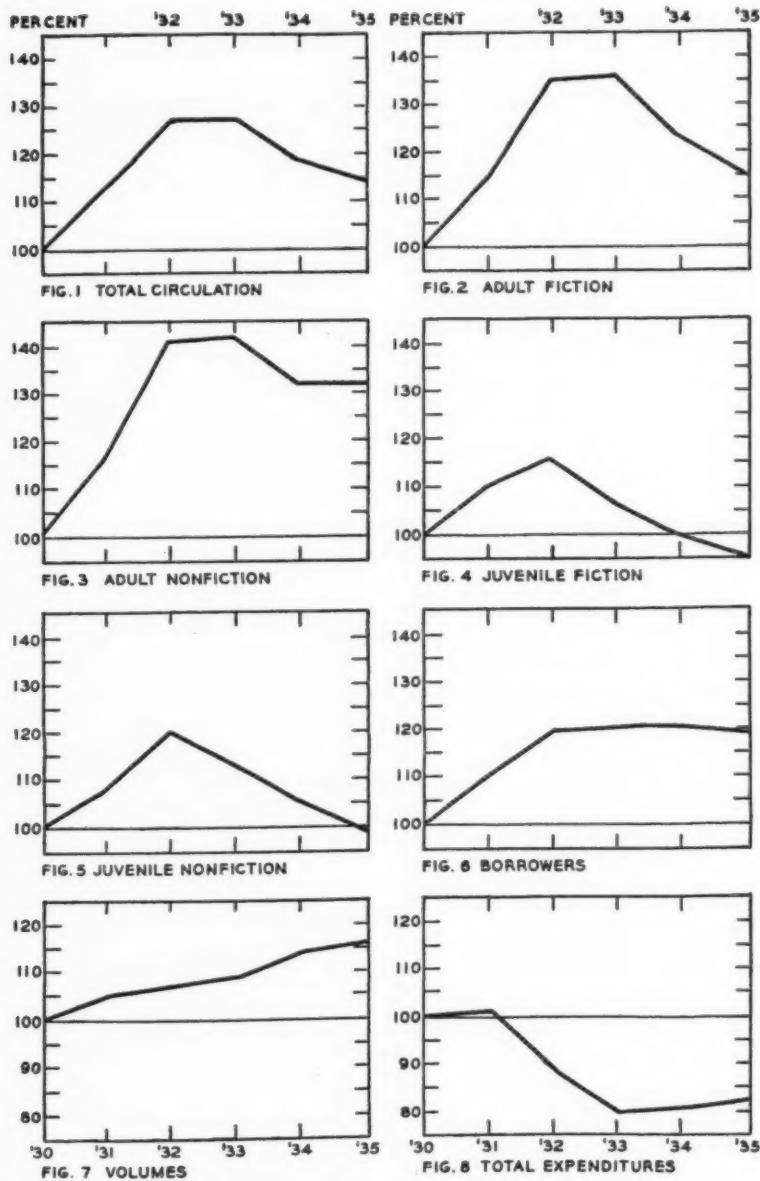
steady decline. The rise is greatest and the decline smallest in the case of adult nonfiction circulation (see Fig. 3). Conversely, the rise is smallest and the decline most pronounced for the circulation of juvenile fiction and nonfiction (see Figs. 4 and 5). In both the juvenile groups the 1935 figure is smaller than that for 1930; these are the only instances in which there was an absolute decline in circulation over the whole period.

Finally, it is useful to compare the upward trends in the library circulation with the diminishing curve for library expenditures in Figure 8. Total expenditures increased very slightly for one year and then plunged rapidly downward for two years, after which there was a small recovery in 1934 and 1935. Comparison of the expenditure curve with the various circulation curves shows a lag in the effect of expenditures on circulation. Circulation did not begin to decline until a year or two after expenditures began to rise.<sup>15</sup> Variations in library expenditures will be considered in detail in the next section, and the relations between expenditures and circulation in the section following.

#### LIBRARY EXPENDITURES

Description of the library's finances is important because these variations generally explain other changes in the library's operation—particularly changes in circulation. The basic changes during the depression in total library expenditures and in the five subdivisions of expenditures (salaries, books, periodicals, binding, and miscellaneous) will be described under five main generalizations

<sup>15</sup> Cf. similar trends in Chicago, as shown by Carleton B. Joeckel and Leon Carnovsky, *A Metropolitan Library in Action* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940), pp. 110–13.



Figs. 1-8.—Public library circulation, 1930-35 (base year, 1930 = 100)

in this section. The index numbers for total expenditures are shown in Table 9.

*1. Total library expenditures were lower in 1935 than in 1930, but the low of the depression came in 1933 and 1934.*—Unlike library circulation, which increased during the period, library expenditures declined 17 per cent between 1930 and 1935, but they were still less in 1933 and 1934, when they dropped to 20 and 19 per cent below 1930. This reduction followed the reduction in national income, which had been declining since 1929. In 1933 and 1934 the national income was 39 and 30 per cent, respectively, less than it had been in 1930. In 1932, when library expenditures were reduced by only 9 per cent, national income had already experienced a 36 per cent reduction.<sup>16</sup>

In 1933-34, when expenditures of libraries were generally lowest, the expenditures of regions ranged from 69 per cent of 1930 in the South to 86 per cent of 1930 in the Middle Atlantic. Averaged for the five-year period 1931-35, we find that the three regions<sup>17</sup> with the highest per capita general income maintain the highest comparative expenditures for the library. These regions are the Middle Atlantic, New England,<sup>18</sup> and the Pacific. During this period the tax revenues of the Middle Atlantic also had the lowest decrease of all regions. Of the different size groups the medium-sized libraries with 50,000-200,000 volumes maintained the highest relative expenditures. The reduction in 1935 for expenditures in this

group was only 13 per cent, and averaged for the five years it was only 11 per cent. The explanation for the financial superiority is probably a natural one. All sizes of municipalities by 1935 were struggling against much the same difficulties of economic deterioration, though in the smallest and largest communities the pinch was most acute. This group of libraries of 50,000-200,000 volumes, in addition to being in communities which felt the

TABLE 9  
TOTAL-EXPENDITURES INDEX BY REGION  
AND BY VOLUME SIZE FOR THE  
YEARS 1931-35  
(Base Year, 1930 = 100)

	TOTAL-EXPENDITURES INDEX					Average
	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935	
By volume size:						
New England.....	89	83	73	75	77	79
Middle Atlantic.....	103	103	86	83	86	93
Middle West.....	100	79	73	80	82	83
South.....	105	81	69	71	77	81
Pacific.....	104	97	82	81	84	90
Total.....	101	90	80	81	83	87
By region:						
10,000 and under.....	97	86	80	84	81	86
10,000-50,000.....	101	88	77	79	81	85
50,000-200,000.....	102	95	82	82	87	89
200,000 and over.....	102	89	80	79	83	87

pinch of depression less, are in the size of community which, generally speaking, takes most interest in and supports most intelligently all community and educational enterprises.

While library budgets were generally reduced during the period 1930-35, it is important to note that in 1931 expenditures were increased from 3 to 5 per cent in three regions—the Middle Atlantic, the Pacific, and the South—and were not reduced in the Middle West. In all library-size groups expenditures were increased from 1 to 2 per cent in 1931, with the exception of the smallest group with under 10,000 volumes.

When reduction of expenditures became a necessity, librarians were faced

<sup>16</sup> Robert F. Martin, *National Income and Its Elements* (New York: National Industrial Conference Board, 1936), p. 10, Chart I.

<sup>17</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 48, Table 25; p. 51, Table 27.

<sup>18</sup> When 5 libraries, each with total expenditures under 80 per cent in 1935 and averaging 67 per cent, are omitted from the sample of 19 libraries for New England, of the remaining 14 libraries expenditures of each are above 80, in 1935, with an average of 94 per cent.

with the problem of deciding what changes to make in the relative proportions of different items of expenditure. The rest of this section will be concerned principally with the discussion of the relative changes made in the major expenditure categories: salaries, books, periodicals, binding, and miscellaneous maintenance expenditures. Reductions in salary expenditures of the various regions and library sizes are shown by index numbers in Table 10.

TABLE 10  
SALARY-EXPENDITURES INDEX BY REGION  
AND BY VOLUME SIZE FOR THE  
YEARS 1931-35  
(Base Year, 1930 = 100)

	SALARY-EXPENDITURES INDEX				
	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
<b>By region:</b>					
New England.....	102	94	85	87	88
Middle Atlantic.....	106	99	96	92	94
Middle West.....	102	86	81	82	86
South.....	103	88	73	75	79
Pacific.....	106	102	95	93	96
Total.....	103	95	89	87	90
<b>By volume size:</b>					
10,000 and under.....	102	95	91	89	89
10,000-50,000.....	103	96	87	87	90
50,000-200,000.....	103	97	88	85	90
200,000 and over.....	104	92	88	86	89

2. *Salary expenditures declined from 1930 to 1935 but declined less sharply than total expenditures.*—This generalization is true of all regions and size groups. The first observation to be made regarding the salary indices shown in Table 10 is that the economic ability of the various regions is reflected in the salary expenditures of their libraries. Thus the regions with highest per capita income—the Middle Atlantic, New England, and the Pacific—reduced salary expenditures in libraries least. When the index numbers

are considered by library-size groups, a high degree of consistency in the proportionate decreases in salary payments is noted. For 1935 the range in the salary index for the four size groups is only 89-90. By 1935 salary expenditures in the total sample of 150 libraries had been restored to 90 per cent of the 1930 base. Nineteen per cent of the individual libraries did not reduce salaries. These libraries are represented in the different size groups in the following proportions: 29 per cent of those of 10,000 volumes and under, 21 per cent of those of 10,000-50,000 volumes, 13 per cent of those of 50,000-200,000 volumes, and only one library of those of over 200,000 volumes. It is readily understood why the fewest salary cuts were made in the smallest libraries. With salary expenditures of around \$1,000 or less, to reduce salaries means practically to close the library.

3. *Book expenditures declined relatively more between 1930 and 1935 than salary expenditures and total expenditures.*—This was true in all regions and size groups, as shown in Table 11. Decreases in book expenditures began in some regions and some library-size groups in 1931. By 1932 reductions were universal in all groups. In 1933 book expenditures reached their depression low and were only 54 per cent of their 1930 basis. Moreover, book expenditures were much less elastic in their rebound toward the predepression norm. In other words, reductions for books were more severe, and recovery was much less in 1935 than for other expenditure categories. For all libraries in the sample of 150 the depression low indices for total expenditures, salary expenditures, and book expenditures were 80, 87, and 53, respectively; the corresponding 1935 indices were 83, 90, and 66. It is clear that a major readjustment in the proportions of library

budgets took place between 1930 and 1935 and that the book budget suffered most.

Like salary and total expenditures, book expenditures were lowest in 1933 and 1934 except in the Middle West. In this region, which had the greatest losses in income of all kinds, book and total expenditures were lowest in 1932-33.

It is a mathematical corollary to what has just been said that the proportion of total expenditures devoted to books in all library groups was reduced during the depression period and that the proportion devoted to salaries was increased. This is made clear by Table 12, in which the percentages of total expenditures devoted to books and salaries are shown by library-size groups. The percentages in this table, it should be remarked, are for books alone and do not include expenditures for periodicals and binding, which are considered in the next subdivision of this section. Book budgets in all size groups suffered materially, but in 1935

TABLE 11  
BOOK-EXPENDITURES INDEX BY REGION  
AND BY VOLUME SIZE FOR THE  
YEARS 1931-35  
(Base Year, 1930 = 100)

	BOOK-EXPENDITURES INDEX				
	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
<b>By region:</b>					
New England.....	96	84	66	71	73
Middle Atlantic.....	100	89	45	42	53
Middle West.....	95	48	48	66	63
South.....	111	64	52	54	64
Pacific.....	103	71	40	43	46
Total.....	94	70	53	58	66
<b>By volume size:</b>					
10,000 and under.....	78	63	57	54	65
10,000-50,000.....	96	73	54	63	71
50,000-200,000.....	100	79	59	62	68
200,000 and over.....	102	64	43	51	60

expenditures in the two smaller groups were more nearly restored to the 1930 ratio than were those in the two larger groups.

TABLE 12  
BOOK AND SALARY PERCENTAGES OF TOTAL EXPENDITURES  
BY VOLUME SIZE FOR THE YEARS 1930-35

LIBRARY SIZE IN VOLUMES	PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL EXPENDITURES					
	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
<b>For Books</b>						
10,000 and under.....	22.58	18.30	16.36	16.16	14.34	17.99
10,000-50,000.....	20.91	20.05	17.33	14.75	16.74	18.29
50,000-200,000.....	20.21	19.83	17.08	14.61	15.42	15.74
200,000 and over.....	15.35	15.47	10.96	8.37	9.89	11.10
<b>For Salaries</b>						
10,000 and under.....	43.68	46.04	48.08	49.62	46.29	47.69
10,000-50,000.....	40.95	48.02	50.90	52.62	52.17	52.05
50,000-200,000.....	54.17	54.66	52.64	58.49	56.58	55.68
200,000 and over.....	59.79	61.33	61.66	65.63	64.87	63.89

Inspection of Table 12 also shows clearly that the relative proportion of expenditures devoted to salaries increases uniformly and materially with

satisfactory book collections, and salary scales are usually higher in the larger cities. This situation is not entirely new in depression times. It was generally

TABLE 13  
PERIODICAL- AND BINDING-EXPENDITURES INDICES AND PERCENTAGES OF  
TOTAL EXPENDITURES BY VOLUME SIZE FOR 1930-35  
(Base Year, 1930 = 100)

VOLUME SIZE AND ITEM	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
	Periodicals					
10,000 and under:						
Index.....	100	102	90	87	74	93
Percentage.....	2.79	2.96	2.91	3.05	2.45	3.17
10,000-50,000:						
Index.....	100	103	91	87	87	92
Percentage.....	1.97	2.02	2.03	2.23	2.18	2.26
50,000-200,000:						
Index.....	100	104	90	84	93	94
Percentage.....	1.70	1.72	1.78	1.76	1.93	1.84
200,000 and over:						
Index.....	100	100	74	68	66	71
Percentage.....	1.08	1.06	0.89	0.92	0.90	0.93
Binding						
10,000 and under:						
Index.....	100	83	63	71	83	74
Percentage.....	2.40	2.05	1.76	2.14	2.34	2.17
10,000-50,000:						
Index.....	100	105	84	78	85	81
Percentage.....	3.25	3.41	3.11	3.27	3.50	3.28
50,000-200,000:						
Index.....	100	107	97	86	89	101
Percentage.....	3.73	3.90	3.82	3.91	4.07	4.33
200,000 and over:						
Index.....	100	99	82	72	75	79
Percentage.....	5.44	5.29	5.03	4.93	5.18	5.19

the size of the library group. Not quite so consistent, but generally evident, is the decrease in the proportion of book expenditures with the increase in the size of the libraries. The probable reasons for these facts seem fairly obvious. The smaller libraries require a larger portion of their expenditures to build up

true of library financial administration in the predepression period, but the distortions caused by forced reductions increased the differences already existing between the relative expenditures for salaries in the different size groups.

There were 25 individual libraries in the sample of 150 which did not reduce

their book expenditures proportionately more than their salary expenditures in the period. These 25 libraries classify in the size groups as follows: 5 in that under 10,000 volumes, 12 in that of 10,000-50,000 volumes, 8 in that of 50,000-200,000 volumes, and 1 in that of over 200,000 volumes.

During the depression period, reductions were made in all items of expenditure, no matter how small, but expendi-

percentage of total expenditures spent for periodicals also decreased only in the largest size group (as shown in Table 13) and increased in the other three groups. This shows that the relative expenditures for periodicals were better maintained in the smaller size groups. Table 13 supplies evidence for the fact that larger libraries spend relatively more for binding than smaller libraries, and relatively less for periodicals. The smallest

TABLE 14  
MISCELLANEOUS-MAINTENANCE-EXPENDITURES INDEX AND PERCENTAGE  
OF TOTAL EXPENDITURES BY VOLUME SIZE FOR 1930-35

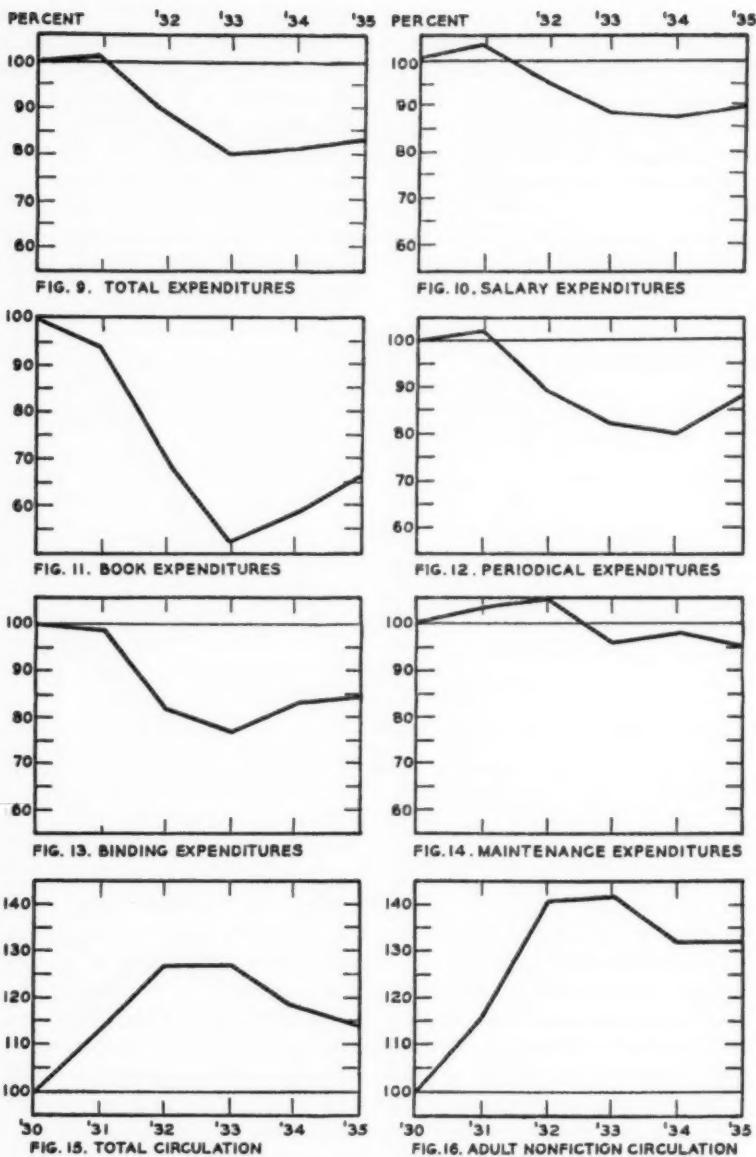
LIBRARY SIZE IN VOLUMES	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
	Index					
10,000 and under.....	100	110	117	115	118	98
10,000-50,000.....	100	103	99	88	88	92
50,000-200,000.....	100	102	101	92	92	100
200,000 and over.....	100	96	103	88	91	91
Percentage						
10,000 and under.....	16.48	18.80	22.41	23.80	23.25	19.94
10,000-50,000.....	16.64	17.09	18.81	18.99	18.78	18.96
50,000-200,000.....	12.53	12.54	13.46	14.08	14.12	14.31
200,000 and over.....	13.28	12.65	15.41	14.64	15.33	14.66

tures for periodicals and bindings were generally not reduced until 1932 and after. The index numbers for these reductions in periodical and binding expenditures are shown in Table 13.

*4. Periodical and binding expenditures declined relatively less than book expenditures in the period.*—This was true of all size groups without exception. In the size group of 50,000-200,000 volumes expenditures for binding were slightly higher and those for periodicals were reduced but 6 per cent in 1935. Periodical expenditures were reduced most in the largest size group, where the necessity of making savings was most pressing. The

reductions in any category were made by the library in expenditures for miscellaneous maintenance. Table 14 shows the index numbers for the comparative reductions in this item in the different size groups.

*5. Miscellaneous maintenance expenditures decreased less from 1930 to 1935 than any other item of expenditure.*—This was true in libraries in all size groups. The percentage of total expenditures spent for maintenance, however, increased in all size groups from 1930 to 1935. In the size group of 50,000-200,000 volumes maintenance expenditures were the same at the beginning and the end of the peri-



Figs. 9-16.—Public library expenditures, 1930-35 (base year, 1930 = 100)

od, and the percentage of total expenditures assigned to maintenance increased from 12.53 per cent to 14.31 per cent. It is readily understood how difficult it would be to reduce such an item, which covers rent of quarters, repairs and upkeep, janitor service, cleaning, light, etc., in a period of steadily increasing service. However, many individual libraries did decrease this item considerably. In 1931 libraries in all groups succeeded in reducing the proportion of the maintenance item, but the percentage rose again in all groups in succeeding years. The percentage of total expenditures assigned to maintenance is much lower in the two larger size groups than it is in the two smaller size groups.

**Summary.**—A graphic summary of the expenditures statistics included in this chapter is presented in Figures 9-14 (based on the index numbers of Table 15); and Figures 15 and 16 make possible a comparison between trends in circulation and expenditures. The data from which the graphs are derived include the whole group of 150 libraries used as a sample in this study.

The pattern shown by the curves is reasonably comparable for five of the measures of expenditures (total, salaries, books, periodicals, and binding)—a major decline followed by a minor rise in the last year or two of the depression period. In the case of salaries there was a small increase before the decline began and for total expenditures a very slight preliminary increase.

The decline in book expenditures was much the most severe, while that in salaries was less marked. At a time when libraries desperately needed books to meet new demands their book budgets were seriously crippled.

Expenditures for miscellaneous maintenance—rent, heat, light, janitor serv-

ice, and the like—do not conform to the pattern for other expenditure categories. As a matter of fact, they varied less than 5 per cent up or down from the 1930 norm.

The extreme disparity between the decreasing financial resources of the library in depression and the increasing service given by the library to the community is very evident when these curves of declining expenditures are compared with the curves of increasing circulation.

TABLE 15  
INDICES FOR ALL ITEMS OF EXPENDITURE, 1931-35  
(Base Year, 1930 = 100)

Item	1931	1932	1933	1934	1935
Salaries.....	103	95	89	87	90
Books.....	94	70	53	58	66
Periodicals.....	102	89	82	80	88
Binding.....	99	84	78	83	84
Maintenance.....	103	105	96	97	95
Total.....	101	90	80	81	83

Again, it is evident that there is a lag in the relation between circulation and expenditure. Depression influences forced circulation upward at first, but circulation eventually declined as expenditures dropped and employment increased. In 1935 the circulation trend was still downward, although the expenditures were again moving upward.

#### CIRCULATION AND EXPENDITURES FOR BOOKS

What was the relation between library expenditures for books and library circulation during the depression period? Certain aspects of this question have been touched upon; it has been shown that there appeared to be a lag in the effect of declines in book expenditure on circulation. The present section will at-

tempt to carry the analysis somewhat further.

The circulation of books by public libraries proverbially depends upon the amount of money they spend (see Table 16). Administration of library expenditures, however, as indicated in the preceding section, shows some variations in opinion as to the relative importance of expenditures for salaries and books. The fact that circulation was better main-

TABLE 16  
LIBRARY CIRCULATION AND EXPENDITURE  
AND BOOK EXPENDITURE BY REGION  
AND LIBRARY SIZE FOR 1930

	Average Three Months' Circula- tion	Average Expendi- ture	Average Book Ex- penditure
<b>By region:</b>			
New England.....	61,260	\$ 35,172	\$ 6,024
Middle Atlantic.....	271,012	164,239	28,265
Middle West.....	111,877	66,147	11,820
South.....	63,427	31,908	6,694
Pacific.....	40,776	21,008	4,970
<b>By volume size:</b>			
10,000 and under.....	7,773	2,579	583
10,000-50,000.....	26,307	12,529	1,917
50,000-200,000.....	86,070	44,128	7,116
200,000 and over.....	1,240,273	779,860	76,275

tained during depression in those libraries which held book expenditures at relatively high averages will be shown in the following discussion.

Circulation varies more closely with book expenditures than with salary expenditures. The Pearson coefficient of correlation between the circulation index and the proportion of expenditures spent for salaries for the sample of 142 libraries used in Tables 17 and 18 is  $-.35 \pm .050$ , while the coefficient of correlation between the circulation index and the proportion of expenditures spent for books is  $+.44 \pm .046$ . Between circulation index and expenditure index it is  $+.25 \pm .053$ .

*Correlation between circulation and book expenditures.*—An analysis of the records of the libraries shows a generally close correspondence between amounts spent for books and circulation. This is made clear by examination of Tables 17 and 18. Table 17 shows that libraries with the highest percentage of book expenditures had the highest circulation indices during the period 1930-35. Similarly, the higher the circulation indices, the higher the book expenditures, as seen in Table 18. In other words, those libraries which

TABLE 17  
CIRCULATION AND BOOK EXPENDITURES, SHOWING RELATION OF INCREASE IN CIRCULATION INDEX, 1931-35, TO BOOK PERCENTAGE, 1930-35\*  
(Base Year, 1930 = 100)

ITEM	PERCENTAGE OF EXPENDITURES FOR BOOKS		
	Above 20	20-15	Below 15
Circulation index.....	128	124	115
Number of libraries.....	42	49	51

\* Eight atypical cases omitted.

spent relatively larger proportions of their total expenditures for books had relatively higher increases in circulation, which indicates that these libraries were better stocked with current reading materials which were in demand by borrowers.

But during the period 1930-35 practically all libraries reduced expenditures while circulation was increasing; and of necessity the comparison between circulation and expenditures for books must be between relative increases in circulation and relative reductions in book expenditures. Table 18 shows that circulation increased more in those libraries which reduced their book expenditures the least during the period 1930-35. The

libraries which more nearly maintained predepression levels of book expenditures were able to replenish their book stock with relatively more current titles in demand.

The regional and volume-size groups with the lowest percentages of book expenditures to total expenditures had the lowest circulation indices in 1935 (see Table 19). These were the Middle Atlantic region and the size group with over 200,000 volumes.

lowest fourth shows that the libraries with the highest circulation index (i.e., a larger increase in circulation) have a decidedly higher percentage of book expenditures than do those with the lowest circulation index. If a book-expenditure percentage of 15 is accepted as a minimum below which the proportion of book expendi-

TABLE 19

CIRCULATION INDEX, HIGH AND 1935; BOOK PERCENTAGE, 1930-35; AND INDEX, 1935, BY REGION AND BY VOLUME SIZE  
(Base Year, 1930 = 100)

TABLE 18  
CIRCULATION AND BOOK EXPENDITURES, SHOWING RELATION OF BOOK-EXPENDITURES INDEX TO INCREASE IN CIRCULATION INDEX, 1931-35\*  
(Base Year, 1930 = 100)

ITEM	CIRCULATION INDEX, 1935			
	Above 150	150-125	125-100	Below 100
Book-expenditure index.....	94	89	78	68
Number of libraries ..	13	30	69	30

\* Eight atypical cases omitted.

Perhaps the foregoing tables contain sufficient evidence of the general fact that those libraries which maintained their percentages of expenditures for books at high levels during the depression period showed the largest increases in circulation. This correspondence is made clearer, however, and more specific when pertinent data for all the libraries in the sample are tabulated in detail.

A rank-order tabulation, arranging the 150 libraries by circulation and comparing indices of circulation with percentages of book expenditures and the rank order of each, provides further statistical evidence for the same conclusion. A comparison of the 37 libraries in the highest fourth with the 37 libraries in the

	CIRCULATION INDEX		BOOK EXPENDITURES	
	Highest	1935	Per-cent-age, 1930-35	Index, 1935
By region:				
New England.....	126(1933)	113	16.84	73
Middle Atlantic.....	122(1932)	103	12.87	53
Middle West.....	116(1932)	110	14.33	63
South.....	132(1932)	120	18.21	64
Pacific.....	125(1933)	112	16.85	46
By volume size:				
Under 10,000.....	137(1933)	125	17.62	65
10,000-50,000.....	129(1933)	114	18.00	71
50,000-200,000.....	130(1933)	120	17.15	68
Above 200,000.....	117(1932)	98	13.53	60

tures ought not to fall—a conclusion with which most public library administrators would probably agree—the table shows that only 8 libraries in the highest fourth fall below the 15 per cent norm, while in the lowest fourth 21 fall below the 15 per cent level. The result of the rank-order correlation for this table is a positive correlation of  $+ .40 \pm .048$ .<sup>19</sup>

It is not the intention of this discussion to insist that there should be a perfect correlation between increase in circulation and the proportion of a library's

<sup>19</sup> If the eight atypical cases omitted in the other correlations are omitted from this one, the answer is  $+ .50 \pm .044$ .

expenditures for books. The correlation of +.40 does suggest a significant relationship between circulation and book expenditures. Unduly large increases in the book-expenditure ratio would not necessarily result in correspondingly large increases in the circulation. However, a library is not likely to maintain an increase in circulation unless it devotes a fair proportion of its income to the purchase of books.

#### DEPRESSION INFLUENCES

The preceding sections have noted certain relations between circulation and expenditures for the years 1930-35. We have now to note the interrelation of library and community from a description of the depression factors which may have effected changes in the library and its use. Causal relations cannot, of course, be established by the data. We can only indicate the relationships among which the causes are to be sought.

A description of the administration of a library unavoidably presents a picture of an institution which is operated independently for its own purposes. This is not a complete picture. Not only is the library supported by the community in which it operates, but its collection of reading materials is built up in response to the demands which develop with changing community activities, institutions, and attitudes. Certain of these factors are known to stimulate reading interest and library use—sometimes directly and sometimes indirectly. In the following description of the community in depression will be included only those factors in the community which are known to have some relation to library use.

Wilson has shown that provision of library service varies with economic ability and that it also varies with "the serv-

ice from schools, adult educational organizations, and other social and cultural institutions and media for the dissemination of ideas." Wilson is speaking of the provision of established library service; but it can be shown by his data that, where there is an increase in the provision of these services which provoke exchange of ideas, discussion, and reading, there is also an increase in library circulation.<sup>20</sup> In the description of the community in depression which follows, emphasis is placed on the changes which took place in those factors which affect library circulation.

*Unemployment.*—First place as a depression factor acting upon libraries must undoubtedly be assigned to the great increase in unemployment which occurred between 1930 and 1935. The stock-market crash in the fall of 1929 did not cause an immediate business and industrial slump. For a short while business held its breath. Retail sales began falling off in 1930. Sales of luxuries, replacements for durable goods, and such new durable goods as houses, furniture, and automobiles were restricted first and most severely. Next, expenditures for clothing were curtailed. A strict economy showed in the purchase of food, but sales were cut less than those for clothing. Sales of articles from the ten-cent store and sales of gasoline dropped least of all. About as many people as before used a car, but a great many more used the old car. Total retail sales for the United States were cut almost in half between 1930 and 1933.

In 1930 and 1931 business dragged and the businessman had many worries, but as a whole business jobs continued. Factory employment, however, fell off sharply.

<sup>20</sup> Wilson, *op. cit.*, pp. 100, 267-321. Cf. summary as shown in Fig. 27 with summaries of chap. xi, "Public School"; chap. xii, "Adult Educational Agencies"; etc.

ly in 1930. Employment decreased more immediately in the durable-goods industries, and over the period of the depression employment in this group was reduced more than in the nondurable goods. Unemployment had increased from 1930, and in the period studied it was apparently most severe in the United States in 1932 and only slightly better in 1933. In these two years the earnings of those who were employed were also considerably reduced.<sup>21</sup>

Unemployment and reduced earnings both were factors which turned people toward the library. Figure 17 substantiates graphically the truth of this statement. The curve for employment is almost the exact reverse of the curve for library circulation. As employment declined, library circulation rose; and, as employment began to increase, circulation began to decrease. The library circulation peak in 1932-33 corresponds precisely to the employment trough in the same years. With more leisure time and less money to spend on other types of recreation, people spent more time in reading.

In 1934 there were approximately twenty million people unemployed, and in that same year there was an increase of 20 per cent in library borrowers over 1930—or, according to estimates of the American Library Association, a total number of twenty-six million registered library borrowers.<sup>22</sup> Probably large numbers of the new borrowers came from the ranks of the unemployed. One naturally would not expect that the entire unemployed group would be library users. Relief workers as a general rule show a

lack of skill which necessarily makes them marginal workers in time of distress. Relief further demoralizes them. However, a large proportion of this unemployed group were between sixteen and twenty-five years, and these probably used the library considerably.

Other factors which contributed to increased demands upon libraries in the period were the changes in types and

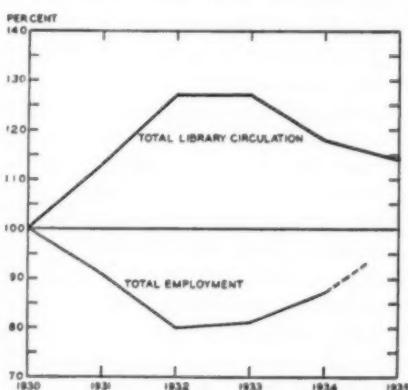


FIG. 17.—Total library circulation and total employment (base year, 1930 = 100). From schedules of public libraries and Robert F. Martin, *National Income and Its Elements* (New York: National Industrial Conference Board, 1936), Table 7, p. 23.

varieties of publications,<sup>23</sup> which added to the ease and interest of reading of all subject material. The library, of course, was only one agency for the distribution of reading material, and we are concerned to learn what changes took place in the other important agencies for distribution of print and ideas.

*Book sales and rental libraries.*—In depression the public, which for the book publisher means primarily the upper middle class, could not afford to buy books equal in quantity to the number being produced, and book production

<sup>21</sup> U.S. Department of Commerce, *Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1935* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1936), p. 315, Table 348; p. 319, Table 352; p. 321, Table 355.

<sup>22</sup> "Contrasts in Library Service," *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XXIX (May, 1935), 249-55.

<sup>23</sup> Douglas Waples, *People and Print* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937), pp. 161-63.

consequently declined.<sup>24</sup> The rental libraries increased their distributing units during the period between 200 and 300 per cent; but receipts, which increased until 1932-33, fell off afterward, although at a smaller rate than that at which they increased.<sup>25</sup>

The commercial book agencies, therefore, which in prosperous or normal times might be looked upon as rivals of the public library, were able to offer less competition during this period, principally because of the inability of their potential public to buy.

*Radio.*—The use of the radio increased over 170 per cent from 1930 to 1935. The increase was a steady one, but it was larger in 1931, 1932, and 1933 than in the following years.<sup>26</sup> Thus it is seen that the radio was being used increasingly in those same years in which the library was experiencing greater use. In the years 1934-35, when library use was declining, the radio was listened to by still more people than in previous years.

Did this increase in the use of the radio contribute to the decline in library circulation? Probably not to any considerable extent. As has been shown, the reduction in book expenditures by libraries could alone account for any decrease appearing in library circulation in 1935.

Paul F. Lazarsfeld's study, *Radio and the Printed Page*,<sup>27</sup> shows that factors of individual traits and interest which lead some to prefer reading to the radio, as a form for communication, persist in spite of radio progress.

<sup>24</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 57-79.

<sup>25</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 114.

<sup>26</sup> U.S. Bureau of Census, *Fifteenth Census of the United States, 1930: Families*; and a survey made by Dr. David Starch for the Columbia Broadcasting Company, figures dated January 1, 1935 (mimeographed).

<sup>27</sup> (New York: Duell, Sloan & Pearce, 1940), pp. 135-36, 320-31.

The radio and the moving picture as the two most popular forms of entertainment in the present period are naturally linked together as possible rival factors to library use.

*Moving pictures.*—It is difficult to know whether the greater use of free recreational facilities during the period was an indication of an urge similar to that which increased library circulation or whether library borrowers might have been increased by those who preferred reading to taking their recreation with the crowd. The inability of many to afford the movie, however, possibly contributed to increased reading of library books. Movie attendance fell off 32 per cent in 1931 and 45 per cent in 1932 and 1933.<sup>28</sup> Library circulation increased 13 per cent in 1931 and 27 per cent in 1932 and 1933 (Table 1).

Since the movie has become perfected, it is the favorite way for many people to secure their drama and vicarious thrills. Some of these people might otherwise be more frequent library borrowers. No doubt when they could ill afford the movies their use of the library increased library circulation somewhat.

In conclusion, it may be said that it is impossible to describe the effect on public libraries of many aspects of community life which are in some way concerned with reading and reading interests. The facts reported in this section, however, suggest some of the social and educational forces which greatly increased demands on the public library during the period 1930-35—demands which, unfortunately, the library could not supply.

One of the most important by-products of the depression, however, was the realization that education is the basis for

<sup>28</sup> Film Daily, *Yearbook of Motion Pictures* (New York: Film Daily, 1935), p. 39.

a safe and productive economic co-operation. The entire range of leisure-time activities were stimulated in this period. And the library was recognized by all groups as having a role in the programs of both education and recreation. Such a library, however, must be alive to the changing social values in government, in economics, and in cultural life.

#### ADMINISTRATIVE QUESTIONS

The depression brought an abrupt check to a long and sustained period of expansion in public library service. Generally, throughout the twentieth century, public libraries maintained their relative financial status among other municipal departments.<sup>29</sup> Since this period was one of great expansion in municipal government, the library's rate of advance was correspondingly rapid. At first, when it appeared that the depression might be of short duration, libraries sought to meet the situation by temporary adjustments. Later, as the depression dragged on, it became apparent that more fundamental changes were necessary. Basic questions of library objectives, service policies, and administration forced themselves on the attention of library executives. In this concluding section consideration will be given to a number of problems of an administrative character which came to the fore during the depression. The treatment here does not pretend to be inclusive; the intent is merely to emphasize a few items for which the data presented in the study provide a relevant background.

*Proportions of library expenditures.*—A perennial administrative problem which assumed renewed importance during the depression period was that of the proportional distribution of the major categories of library expenditures—salaries,

books, periodicals, and binding. Before the depression began, public librarians had reached a high degree of unanimity on the normal percentages to be assigned to these subdivisions of total expenditures. For larger libraries this norm might have been stated as the proportion 65:23:12,<sup>30</sup> and for medium-sized libraries, 54:26:20<sup>31</sup> (including expenditures for periodicals and binding with books), the figures indicating percentages for salaries, books, and miscellaneous expenditures in that order. But, as we have seen, the depression was responsible for decided changes in those ratios (Table 12).

The findings of this study seem to afford strong support for the conclusion that a well-proportioned library budget is essential to satisfactory library operation and, in particular, to the maintenance of circulation levels. It has been shown that during the depression period there was a significant correlation between circulation increases and the maintenance of an adequate ratio of book expenditures. Circulation increases were greater, as Table 20 shows, in the three smaller size groups than in the group of large libraries of over 200,000 volumes, and the proportion of book expenditures is also correspondingly greater in the three smaller groups.

It seems evident that relative cuts in book and salary expenditures during depression were determined partly by the size of the library and the rigidity of the budget. Nevertheless, the libraries which

<sup>29</sup> Joeckel and Carnovsky, *op. cit.*, p. 107.

<sup>30</sup> This is the proportion for the 30 libraries of 50,000-200,000 volumes in the sample of 150. It is easily recognized as approximating the proportion proposed by the A.L.A.—55:25:20—in "Standards of Public Libraries," *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XXVII (1933), 514. A similar one is also given in C. E. Sherman, "The Library Budget," *Current Problems in Public Library Finance*, ed. Carl Vitz (Chicago: American Library Association, 1933), p. 51.

<sup>31</sup> Cf. U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Financial Statistics of Cities*.

TABLE 20  
FOUR VOLUME-SIZE GROUPS SHOWING CIRCULATION AND EXPENDITURE INDICES AND BOOK, PERIODICAL, AND BINDING PERCENTAGES FOR 1930-35

YEAR	CIR- CULA- TION INDEX	EX- PENDI- TURE INDEX	BOOK PER- CENT- AGE	PERI- ODI- CAL PER- CENT- AGE	BIND- ING PER- CENT- AGE
Under 10,000 Volumes					
1930.....	100	100	22.58	2.79	2.40
1931.....	114	97	18.30	3.48	2.05
1932.....	133	86	16.36	2.91	1.76
1933.....	137	80	16.16	2.87	2.14
1934.....	127	84	14.34	2.62	2.34
1935.....	125	81	17.99	3.02	2.17
10,000-50,000 Volumes					
1930.....	100	100	20.91	1.97	3.25
1931.....	114	101	20.05	2.02	3.41
1932.....	126	88	17.33	2.03	3.11
1933.....	129	77	14.75	2.23	3.27
1934.....	110	79	16.74	2.18	3.50
1935.....	114	81	18.29	2.26	3.28
50,000-200,000 Volumes					
1930.....	100	100	20.21	1.70	3.73
1931.....	114	102	19.83	1.73	3.90
1932.....	130	94	17.08	1.78	3.82
1933.....	130	82	14.61	1.76	3.91
1934.....	123	82	15.42	1.93	4.07
1935.....	120	87	15.74	1.84	4.33
Over 200,000 Volumes					
1930.....	100	100	15.35	1.08	5.44
1931.....	109	102	15.47	1.06	5.29
1932.....	117	89	10.96	0.89	5.02
1933.....	109	80	8.37	0.92	4.93
1934.....	103	79	9.89	0.90	5.18
1935.....	98	83	11.10	0.93	5.19

reduced their different expenditures proportionately seem to have suffered smaller losses in circulation.<sup>32</sup> This suggests

<sup>32</sup> Circulation has been taken as a measure of library service because circulation records are the only records of the service of the library sufficiently stand-

that possibly the greater relative reduction of book expenditures in some libraries indicates a different attitude on the part of the administrator as to the relative importance of book stock and staff to the service of the library.

The data show that the generally accepted proportions of library budgets in predepression days were at least reasonably satisfactory, and those proportions for books should be at least maintained in the future. One of the most important causes of the inability of the public library to take advantage of its opportunities during the depression was the distorted proportions which characterized library expenditures during the period, which meant, in most cases, book expenditures too low to supply the demand. And, if the demand is not reasonably well supplied, circulation will decline.

A striking example of the point is the experience of the Chicago Public Library. As shown in Table 21, the index of total expenditures for the Chicago Public Library in 1935 was 78. The book-expenditures index was 93; but for the three years previous it had been from 8 to 22, and the percentage of total expenditures allocated to books had varied in 1930-35 from 0.89 per cent to 11.72 per cent. These are percentages which, it has been shown, are too low to support circulation, and the very severe decline in circulation in Chicago was the inevitable result.<sup>33</sup> The lesson for the librarian plainly is that expenditures for books should increase as service increases.<sup>34</sup>

ardized to use for comparisons. This fact does not include the implication that circulation of books is the most important service of the library.

<sup>33</sup> Joeckel and Carnovsky, *op. cit.*, pp. 206-12.

<sup>34</sup> This does not mean, of course, that expenditures for books should be increased at the expense of those for salaries where a normal proportion has already been established by the library.

*Diminished proportion of service to children.*—Another problem of proportion in library service began to assume somewhat more definite form during the depression period. As yet its outlines are vague, and many librarians would vigorously deny that it is a problem or ever will be one. Yet the fact remains that during the period of the depression it became evident that the existing ratios between library service to children and to adults were changing. It has been shown that, while adult circulation generally increased during the depression period, children's circulation generally decreased (Table 2). Service to children has always been an essential part of public library service, and any shift in its relative importance is bound to be significant.

Two facts have contributed to this situation. One is that the absolute number of children in the population is declining and the relative proportion of adults is therefore increasing noticeably. The second fact is that elementary and secondary libraries increased greatly in number and service during the depression period. The number of libraries in separately housed public high schools increased 11 per cent during the period, and the average number of volumes per library increased 14 per cent.<sup>35</sup>

With the adult portion of the community increasing and with adult education also growing in importance, it is inevitable that public library administrators will be forced to consider seriously changes in the amount of service provided for adult and for juvenile groups. Moreover, there is to be considered the rapid emergence of a roughly parallel system of service to children and youth—

the school library. Conceivably, sweeping changes in the organization of library service to youth will result from this new situation. It is significant to note that the librarians of two large public libraries have recently openly posed the question of whether the public library should not abandon the juvenile field to the school library.<sup>36</sup> While such a drastic revision of public library policy as this is unlikely to come rapidly, it seems possible to pre-

TABLE 21  
CHICAGO PUBLIC LIBRARY CIRCULATION, EXPENDITURE, SALARY, AND BOOK INDICES  
AND BOOK PERCENTAGES, 1930-35  
(Base Year, 1930 = 100)

Year	Circulation Index	Expenditure Index	Salary Index	Book Index	Book Percentage
1930.....	100	100	100	100	8.98
1931.....	114	105	105	138	11.72
1932.....	112	82	69	8	0.89
1933.....	94	78	67	22	1.50
1934.....	79	74	63	22	2.64
1935.....	73	78	64	93	10.68
Averages.....	82	86	78	64	6.07

dict that public libraries may tend to restrict in various ways the amount of their children's work, leaving more of this service to the school libraries. Boards of trustees and librarians are likely to be confronted with this question more frequently in the future.

*Development of co-operative services.*—During the period covered by this study, 1930-35, there were the beginnings of an important co-operative development in public library service to large rural areas. Public libraries have long existed in

<sup>35</sup> U.S. Bureau of Education, *Biennial Survey of Education, 1928-30* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1933), chap. ii, pp. 776-77, Table 52; *ibid.*, 1932-34, chap. v, p. 75, Table 53.

<sup>36</sup> Ralph Munn, "Fact Versus Folklore," *A.L.A. Bulletin*, XXXIV (June, 1940), 381; Nell Avery Unger, "Shall We Surrender?" *Institute on Library Work with Children: Proceedings* (School of Librarianship, University of California, 1939), pp. 32-44.

many rural areas but have not always succeeded in giving adequate service. With the development of the new pattern of Agriculture Extension Service during the depression and the regional administration of the Emergency Education Program, there also developed a new pattern of library service in rural areas. This development was especially evident in the South, where the Emergency Education Program was most successful and where there was relatively little established library service. In some states the state-wide service was provided through the co-operation of existing libraries, the Work Projects Administration, and the National Youth Administration, the whole administered under trained librarians but using many workers from the above-named relief organizations as well as volunteer workers.<sup>37</sup> We also find the school library serving increasingly as a branch to the public library. In the development of these services to larger areas which Joeckel describes in *Library Service*,<sup>38</sup> the trade centers set the pat-

<sup>37</sup> U.S. Works Progress Administration of Arkansas, "Library Projects: Annual Report, 1936" (mimeographed).

<sup>38</sup> Prepared for the Advisory Committee on Education (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938), pp. 58-61. Wilson also takes note of this type of library expansion in the South in "Optima in Li-

tern for the development. The Agriculture Extension Service had already given an example for the establishment of service by demonstration. And the rural attitude at this time, particularly in the South, was receptive to new programs not standardized, if there was profit to the community.

#### CONCLUSION

This record of the public library in depression has been almost wholly statistical. The high peaks of circulation during the period, however, suggest that library service during the depression was eagerly sought. Likewise, no attempt could be made to tell the story of conscientious public service given by the staffs of the great majority of American public libraries during the difficult days and years of the depression. The 150 libraries of which this study was made are merely names, scattered from Maine to California. But taken together they constitute an important record of work sympathetically done, which contributed something to the lessening of social ills during a difficult period.

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brary Service for the South by 1950," in Harry Miller Lydenberg and Andrew Keogh (eds.), *William Warner Bishop: A Tribute* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1941), pp. 186-204.

## A COST STUDY IN THE PREPARATIONS DEPARTMENT OF A SMALL COLLEGE LIBRARY

PATRICIA B. KNAPP

THE layman library user usually has no conception of the costs involved in placing a book in a library, beyond the obvious one of the book's purchase price. There are countless examples of the well-meaning patron who donates a collection of out-of-date volumes to a library, expecting gratitude, and who is puzzled, hurt, and often insulted when confronted with the explanation that the cost of cataloging and preparing the books for the shelves would outweigh their practical value and use. The librarian, on the other hand, has tacitly accepted the high cost of book preparation through years of familiarity, without investigating the factors involved. Such unquestioning acceptance is basically dishonest; costs can be justified only in terms of the service they make possible.

Careful studies of cataloging costs will have, therefore, a primary value to the library in suggesting methods for increasing economy and efficiency, as well as a secondary value in furnishing to the uncomprehending layman evidence of the need for larger library appropriations. The study described below is the record of a cataloger's personal approach to this problem.

Since equipment, supplies, and overhead are beyond the control of the cataloger, his chief concern must be with labor costs. In the preparations department, books are prepared physically for use, arranged for convenience, and indexed according to their contents by means of a card catalog. The production

of the preparations department may therefore be measured in units either of books (titles or volumes) or of cards.

In an attempt to discover the relation between this production and its labor cost in the preparations department of a small college library, records were kept of work produced and of the number and cost of the hours of labor which produced it during the school year 1941-42. The data obtained are tabulated in Table 1.

These figures may be useful for budgeting and for comparison with other libraries or with other periods of time, but they offer no lever for economizing. They must be accepted as they stand because the labor involved is not analyzed in terms of the cost of individual processes.

Reports of recent investigations of library costs were studied in an endeavor to determine their applicability to the problem at hand. Perhaps the most thorough investigation of library costs which has so far appeared is that conducted by Fremont Rider at Wesleyan University, Middletown, Connecticut.<sup>1</sup> His analysis covered all activities of the library, grouped in eleven major classifications. The costs of nonproductive or indirect labor, building rental, equipment, overhead, raw materials, and miscellaneous expenses were carefully allocated among these major classifications. From this analysis Mr. Rider emerged with a determination of the labor and the total

<sup>1</sup> "Library Cost Accounting," *Library Quarterly*, VI (1936), 331-81.

cost per unit for six of the major classifications.

While the figures thus determined have undoubtedly value for administrative purposes, the major classifications are not subdivided sufficiently to admit evaluation of the individual processes in terms of cost and value in library service.

Robert Miller has recognized this deficiency: "The unit costs that he [Rider]

TABLE I  
TOTAL PRODUCTION AND UNIT LABOR COSTS  
1941-42

	Total Production	Labor Cost per Unit of Production*
Titles:		
New.....	2,244	\$1.13
New and recataloged.....	2,470	1.02
Volumes:		
New.....	3,530	0.72
New and recataloged.....	4,170	0.61
Catalog cards.....	15,245	0.17

\* Based on total labor cost of \$2,529.60.

and earlier investigators have reported, however, have been so inclusive as to obscure the differences in process and in type of material that demand measurement and comparison."<sup>2</sup>

In Mr. Miller's study, processes were broken down into much smaller units. For two reasons, however, his method appeared difficult to apply in the present situation. In the first place, many activities analyzed in his study occur in the small college library too infrequently to warrant measurement. In this respect, therefore, the present study had to take a middle course between the two investigations—i.e., had to be more detailed than Mr. Rider's and less detailed than Mr. Miller's.

<sup>2</sup> "Cost Accounting for Libraries: Acquisition and Cataloging," *Library Quarterly*, VII (1937), 513.

The second difficulty in applying Mr. Miller's method appeared in keeping the records. The individual time sheets are so constructed that the staff members must keep track of the total time spent each day on each individual process. We judged it inadvisable to rely to that extent on accurate memory, especially since we were attempting to measure the work of student assistants.

The next step in our investigation was, therefore, based on an analysis of the individual processes which go into the workings of the department. On the assumption that the duties of student assistants are different from those of catalogers, a list of activities was made out for each. The cataloger's list included: supervision and administration; cataloging and classification with L.C. cards; cataloging and classification without L.C. cards; determination of subject headings; searching for series and cross-reference cards; shelf-listing; revision of typing; entering of statistics and records; revision of filing; inventory and withdrawal; correction and change; subject-heading work; filing work; catalog advice; unaccounted. The student assistant's list included: stamping; pasting; shelving; typing L.C. cards; typing typed cards; outside marking; inside marking; shellacking; filing shelf and catalog cards; filing discards and lost; pulling cards; changing tracings; mending; placing pamphlets in binders; filing L.C. cards and slips; looking for books; unaccounted.

The lists of activities were entered along one axis of ruled sheets of paper. The other axis was divided into fifteen-minute periods of the day. The workers were asked to put a check into the appropriate square for each fifteen-minute period they worked. At the end of thirteen days the results were totaled and

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the cost of each process for this period was determined.

It will be noted that certain of the processes result in no measurable units of production. The cost of these processes would, in a study of longer duration, probably be allocated among the other processes in proportion to direct labor cost—although, as Mr. Miller suggests, “if the record stops short with direct labor costs, more exact and verifiable data are had.”<sup>3</sup>

Those processes which do result in units of production were analyzed as to cost per unit, as shown in Table 2.

Because the study was so brief and because the load of new books handled during the period studied was not normal, it should be emphasized that these figures do not necessarily represent the actual unit costs of the cataloging processes in this library. The major concern at this time was with working out a method to be used over a longer period in arriving at such cost figures. These could then be used in evaluating the processes in terms of necessity and cost and in making such evaluation the basis

for modifying or eliminating certain processes, to the end of reducing total cost.

TABLE 2  
UNIT LABOR COSTS OF CATALOGING PROCESSES  
OVER A THIRTEEN-DAY PERIOD

	PER TITLE	PER VOLUME	PER CATALOG CARD	
			L.C.	Typed
Cataloging and classification:				
With L.C. cards	\$0.303	\$0.152		
Without L.C. cards	0.788	.388	\$0.010	\$0.019
Typing			.0018	.0018
Filing			.0047	.0047
Revision of typing			0.0036	0.0036
Revision of filing				
Outside marking		.0164		
Inside marking		.106		
Shellacking		.0053		
Inventory and withdrawal		0.0050		

Under war conditions libraries will have much difficulty keeping up their standards of service, and information about costs will be especially valuable. It is hoped that libraries similar to ours may find the method described here useful in arriving at this information.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 532.

## THE DATE OF THE SARUM MISSAL PRINTED BY JEAN DU PRÉ

CURT F. BÜHLER

A *MISSALE AD USUM SARUM* printed by Jean Du Pré in Paris is listed in E. Gordon Duff's *Fifteenth Century English Books* (Bibliographical Society, 1917, No. 331) with the date 30 September, 1500. The printed date as it appears in the book itself reads "M. CCCCC. ii. kl'. Octobris"—a date which is open to two interpretations. If the Roman numeral "ii" is considered as forming part of the year, the book must have been printed on 1 October, 1502, and thus should not be included among the English incunabula. However, if the same ii is regarded as being prefixed to the kalends, the date would be that noted by Duff. Not all bibliographers, however, have agreed with Duff in his interpretation of the date, and the standard bibliography of missals by Weale and Bohatta<sup>1</sup> lists the book under both dates, thus creating a "ghost." Since Duff included this missal among the English fifteenth-century books for reasons other than typographical, it seems worth while to scrutinize this evidence afresh even though present circumstances have made it impossible to examine the book itself for such corroborative details as type, ornament, and initials can supply.

The reason for including this Sarum Missal among the English incunabula is stated by Duff thus: "There has been some doubt whether this edition was printed in 1500 or 1502. As both Brunet

<sup>1</sup> W. H. J. Weale and H. Bohatta, *Bibliographia liturgica: Catalogus missalium ritus Latini ab anno M. CCCC. LXXIV. impressorum* (Londini, 1928), p. 231, Nos. 1397 and 1401. The first edition, edited by Weale alone (London, 1886), also described this missal twice (p. 180).

and Renouard agree that Dupré died in 1501, it must be ascribed to the year 1500." Now, contrary to what Duff says, Jean Du Pré<sup>2</sup> was very much alive as late as 1 February, 1502, for on that date he issued a *Missale ad usum ecclesiae Dolensis* (Weale-Bohatta No. 358). Indeed, if Du Pré, following the usual practice of Parisian printers of his day, dated this book "more Gallicano,"<sup>3</sup> as he is supposed to have done in the case of some of his earlier books (see GW No. 4434, GW No. 5286, GW No. 6230, etc.), the Dôle Missal was produced not in 1502 but in 1503. Anatole Claudin set an even later date for Du Pré's activity in a footnote which reads:

Jean Du Pré dut cesser de travailler un peu avant septembre 1504. Le 7 des ides de septembre (25 septembre) 1504 paraissait un Bréviaire de Limoges, de format in-folio, imprimé pour le compte de Richard de La Nouaille, libraire, par les successeurs de Jean Du Pré, c'est-à-dire les habiles collaborateurs ou ouvriers de son atelier qui avaient continué ses travaux (*industria successorum Johannis de Prato in arte impressoria non modicum expertorum*).<sup>4</sup>

<sup>2</sup> There has been much confusion about the various printers by the name of Du Pré who were at work in the fifteenth century. The chief competitor of the Parisian Jean Du Pré was the printer of the same name who flourished in Lyon and elsewhere. The latter is last heard of in Montpellier in 1501 (see Félix Desverney, *Les origines de l'imprimerie à Montpellier* [Lyon, 1904]); he is not known to have worked in Paris.

<sup>3</sup> The style of beginning the year with Easter Day was generally used throughout France, though there are some instances which indicate that the year was occasionally begun with January 1. For a full discussion see Frederick R. Goff, "The Dates in Certain German Incunabula," *Papers of the Bibliographical Society of America*, XXXIV (1940), 63–64.

<sup>4</sup> *Histoire de l'imprimerie en France au XV<sup>e</sup> et au XVI<sup>e</sup> siècle* (Paris, 1900–14), I, 283, n. 2.

Subsequent to this, two books appeared signed by "la vefve feu Jehan Du Pré"—the French *Horae ad usum Romanum* (27 May, 1506) and the *Tractatus corporis Christi* (4 October, 1507). The inference is that Du Pré probably began the Breviary but that the book was completed after his death by his pressmen, since the press itself apparently remained in the hands of Du Pré's family, and his widow seems to have undertaken the operation of it herself once the Breviary had been got out of the way. However it may be, it is rather generally agreed that Du Pré was still alive in 1504.<sup>5</sup>

Since Du Pré did not die in 1501, as supposed by Duff, it becomes doubtful whether the Sarum Missal is an incunabulum or not. Unless it can be clearly demonstrated from internal evidence that the book was printed before 1500, it seems safest for the following reasons to assume that it was printed in 1502. The form "MCCCCCii"—if we interpret the date thus—is, from a typographical point of view, of quite common occurrence. Hundreds of similar instances may be quoted where the printer set the thousand and hundreds in capitals and the tens and units in lower case; for example, Caxton prints the date so in the colophons of his *Confessio Amantis*, *Paris and Vienne*, *Charles the Great*, *Morte d'Arthur*, and other books. On the other hand, if the Roman ii is taken to apply to the kalends, this reading yields the incorrect form, "secundo kalendas," for the classical "pridie kalendas." While the use of "secundo" for "pridie" (before kalends, ides, and nones) is not entirely

unknown in fifteenth-century books, it is comparatively rare. In glancing over the dates of some ten thousand early printed books the present writer has met with but ten cases (six German and four Italian books) where "secundo" occurs in place of "pridie";<sup>6</sup> the latter form, it may be pointed out, was found in 126 instances. Thus, in over 90 per cent of the books where this Roman date occurs, the printer used "pridie," and (significantly enough) no example of the use of "secundo" was noted among the French presses.<sup>7</sup> Surely the printer himself, even if he habitually used the form "secundo kalendas" rather than "pridie kalendas," must have realized that the date in this particular instance was subject to two different interpretations; he could easily have escaped this difficulty by dating the volume, as he did his Besançon Missal (Weale-Bohatta No. 175), "die vero mensis septembris ultima."<sup>8</sup> This in itself is no conclusive argument that the

<sup>5</sup> The books thus dated are listed in the *Gesamtkatalog* under Nos. 2189, 2755, 2756, 4155, 5412, 6051, 6386, and 6831; also Weale-Bohatta Nos. 395 and 627. The Gran Missal (Weale-Bohatta No. 1499) is dated "M.CCCCC.ij. Kal". Aprilis" and is thus subject to the same query as the Sarum Missal. I have checked through the first six volumes of the *Gesamtkatalog*, Weale-Bohatta, and Hanns Bohatta, *Bibliographie der Breviere 1501–1850* (Leipzig, 1937), in search of examples of this form of dating. It may further be noted that in eight of the ten examples cited the date actually given is "secundo," not the numerical "ii." It is reasonable to suppose, therefore, that where "ii" appears it was intended to be read as "secundo" and that it was not merely a numerical form of "pridie," to be read thus.

<sup>6</sup> I have noted three instances of the use of "primo" (GW No. 5904, GW No. 6729, Reichling Suppl. No. 201); the *Gesamtkatalog* considers this to be used for "pridie" (but see Goff, *op. cit.*, p. 55, n. 14). GW No. 1886 notes the curious form "postridie idū Augustarū," which is used for "XIX kalendas Septembris" (August 14).

<sup>7</sup> If the Chartres Missal of 1482 (Weale-Bohatta No. 234) is the work of our Jean Du Pré, it may be noted that this is also dated "die ultima mensis iulii."

<sup>8</sup> That Jean Du Pré was still alive in 1504 is accepted by Ph. Renouard, *Les marques typographiques Parisiennes des XV<sup>e</sup> et XVI<sup>e</sup> siècles* (Paris, 1926), p. 74, and by W. J. Meyer, *Die französischen Drucker- und Verlegerzeichen des XV. Jahrhunderts* (München, 1926), p. 85.

"ii" belongs to the year and not to the kalends, but the percentage cited above does indicate that most printers knew and used the correct classical form. Consequently, if a choice must be made, it should be made with a preference for the correct form.

The present discussion has shown that, unless very excellent typographical proof can be discovered to warrant including Du Pré's Sarum Missal among the English incunabula, the book should, I believe, be dated 1 October, 1502.<sup>9</sup> Fur-

<sup>9</sup> Dr. Pierce Butler has kindly pointed out to me that Duff made the following statement in his *The Printers, Stationers and Bookbinders of Westminster and London from 1476 to 1535* (Cambridge, 1906), p. 206: "The *Missal* issued in 1500 by Jean du Pré, but generally ascribed through a misreading of the colophon to 1502, speaks of several new prayers just brought over from England by Jean Antoine the stationer." The original text is printed in Duff No. 331. The questions that arise are: When did Antoine visit England, and how recent is the "noviter" mentioned in the text? Very little seems to be known about this Johannes Antonius Venetus; in any case, Du Pré's statement was clearly designed to promote the sale of the book in England and may not be wholly truthful. As for Antonius, he is apparently the same individual who produced the *Bucolica* of Andrelinus in 1501 and who is known to have been associated

thermore, it is evident that Du Pré printed only one *Missale ad usum Sarum* known to us and that Weale-Bohatta No. 1397 and No. 1401 describe one and the same book. Indeed, if further identification be needed to prove that these supposedly different editions are really one and the same, one may note that Weale-Bohatta gives the same Duff number (331) in both instances.

with Jean Du Pré. H. W. Davies (*Catalogue of a Collection of Early French Books in the Library of C. Fairfax Murray* [London, 1910], II, 912) adds the following significant note to his description of the Andrelinus: "Claudin (*Hist. de l'Impr.*, I, 464, note) mentions only an edition of 1505 by the same printer for J. du Pré, but it may be remarked that J. Antonius is recorded by Renouard (*Impr. Parisiens*) only in the years 1501-2. We have seen an edition similar to the present, and dated 1501, but with an extra line inserted between *martias* and *Anno* as follows:—*Impensis Ioannis de prato de vico sancti iacobi ||.*" If this is our Jean Du Pré, it would indicate that he was still alive in 1505 and that the notation in the Limoges Breviary requires a different interpretation. However, Claudin's particulars are too scanty and are tacitly queried by Davies, so that it is impossible to make a definite statement here. In any case, as far as the Sarum Missal is concerned, here is a further hint that Du Pré was alive after 1501; in addition, Renouard's dates suggest that Antoine was active only after 1500.

## THE COVER DESIGN

ANDREAS HARTMANN, or Cratander, as he preferred to be called, was probably born in Strassburg. He presumably learned printing there; in 1513, at least, he was working as a compositor for Matthias Schürer. In 1516, however, he settled in Basel. There he evidently worked first as an editor; he wrote the Foreword to the edition of the works of St. Ambrose printed in 1516 by Adam Petri.

Cratander soon after this opened in Basel a printing office well equipped with types in various languages. In 1518 he began printing in partnership with Servatius Cruftanus. This partnership, however, lasted only about a year. On March 2, 1519, Cratander was made a burgher of Basel.

Cratander printed at least 150 editions, many of them ponderous folios involving a great deal of composition and proof-reading—usually in Latin or Greek. He printed the works of classical authors of the church fathers, of the Renaissance rhetoricians—including a work by the Englishman, Thomas Linacre—and of the Protestant reformers, Melanchthon and Luther. He was especially fond of issuing the Latin Bible and the Greek New Testament, the latter in the edition of Erasmus.

Cratander seems to have close relations with the University of Basel. He printed several treatises of its professors of law, and seldom would a year elapse without his issuing one or more works of its professor of divinity, the reformer and humanist, Joannes Oecolampadius, who was a personal friend of the printer.

Late in his career Cratander became interested in the publication of medical works. These were chiefly the works of the classical writers with commentaries by contemporary physicians.

Cratander was a well-educated man and the friend of many scholars. His hospitality to learned men became famous; some were frequent guests at his house for long periods, others worked for him as correctors of the press. In turn, the foremost Swiss and German scholars were glad to have their works issued by him.

Late in his printing career, in 1532 and 1533, Cratander was for a short time in partnership with Johann Bebel. He continued printing until 1536. Then (at the insistence of his wife, so it is said) he sold his printing establishment, "At the sign of the black bear," to the newly formed firm of Winter, Oporinus, Platter, and Lascius, and confined himself to bookselling with the assistance of his son, Poly-

carp. Cratander died, evidently in reduced circumstances, in 1540.

Cratander repeatedly used as his mark the figure of Occasio, or Opportunity. Bald at the back, her hair blown before her, with winged feet she strides the world; in her hand she carries a razor to show how sharply is divided the fleeting present from the irrevocable past.

EDWIN ELLIOTT WILLOUGHBY

FOLGER SHAKESPEARE  
LIBRARY

## THE CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

CURT F. BÜHLER is in charge of incunabula in the Pierpont Morgan Library. For biographical information see the *Library Quarterly*, XI (1941), 504.

MARGARET M. HERDMAN was born in Chicago on April 27, 1888. She attended the University of Illinois, which awarded her the A.B. degree in 1910 and the B.L.S. in 1915, and received her Ph.D. from the University of Chicago in 1941. She was librarian for the philosophy, psychology, and education seminar at the University of Illinois, 1911-16; librarian of Rockford College, 1916-17; head of the reference files for the Alien Property Custodian in Washington, 1918-19; organizer of the library and service bureaus of the National Board of the Y.W.C.A. in New York, with which she was connected from 1919 to 1923; director of the Chicago Collegiate Bureau, 1923-25; organizer and cataloger of the library and files, Paris Library School, 1926-27; assistant professor at McGill University Library School, Montreal, 1927-31; and, since 1931, has been professor in the Library School of Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge. Miss Herdman is the author of *Classification: An Introductory Manual* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1934) and of articles in professional periodicals.

PATRICIA B. KNAPP was born in Youngstown, Ohio, in 1914. She received her A.B. degree from the University of Chicago in 1935 and her A.M. from the Graduate Library

School of that institution in 1943. After serving as library assistant at St. Xavier College, Chicago, she obtained her present position as head cataloger for the library of Chicago Teachers College and Woodrow Wilson Junior College.

WILLIAM JEROME WILSON now holds the post of historian of the Office of Price Administration. The first of his two articles on "Manuscripts in Microfilm" appeared in the July, 1943, issue of the *Library Quarterly*. For biographical information see that issue, page 246.

GEOFFREY WOLEDGE was born in London on November 13, 1901. He received his B.A. with honors in English from the University of Leeds in 1925. He was student assistant in the Leeds University Library 1919-25 and assistant librarian 1925-31. From 1931 to 1938 he was librarian at Selly Oak Colleges, Birmingham, and since 1938 has been librarian at Queen's University, Belfast, Ireland. Mr. Woledge was hon. treasurer of the Birmingham Branch of the Library Association, 1933-38, and chairman of the Northern Ireland Branch 1939-41; he has been a committee member of the Association's University and Research Section since 1935. He was joint editor and part author of *A Manual of University and College Library Practice* (London: The Library Association, 1940), and has published papers on literary history, the local history of Yorkshire, and librarianship and bibliography.

## REVIEWS

*The Folger Shakespeare Memorial Library: A Report on Progress, 1931-1941.* By JOSEPH QUINCY ADAMS. Published for the Trustees of Amherst College, 1942. Pp. 61.

It is indeed a report on progress which the director of the Folger Shakespeare Memorial Library has set before us. Such a report would have gladdened the heart of the collector who spent forty-five years of a very busy life assembling this remarkable collection, for the whole tenor of its text is evidence that the spirit of its founder lives on in the beautiful marble structure which is as much a memorial to his well-directed life as it is to the great dramatist he delighted to honor.

The fact that more than two-thirds of the *Report* is given over to recording accessions of manuscripts and rare printed items rather than to detailing administrative matters not only is refreshing, it is downright encouraging, particularly when one notices that the sponsors of the report are the trustees of a well-known institution devoted to teaching and research. Joseph Quincy Adams has done exceptionally well to follow so carefully the course charted by Henry Folger, but he could not have done so had he not been loyally supported by the Amherst College trustees, and particularly by those chosen to serve as the Folger Library Committee. It is good to know that the brave imagination of a great collector still survives as the guiding spirit of the library he founded in days when the intensely practical demands of scholarship seem almost to prefer the possession of a photographic reproduction to the ownership of a rare original.

Dr. Adams lists the accessions for the decade under six heads, viz., "Manuscripts," "English-printed Books 1475-1640," "Books 1641-1699," "Books 1700—," "Material Relating to the Theatre," and "Miscellaneous." From these various categories he selects for brief description outstanding groups or particularly significant items, but, even so, the result is bewildering in the wealth of material it reveals. The student of Shakespeare and the English drama must read the *Report* in detail to appreciate what the director has accom-

plished when he states that "he has personally examined, usually on the day received, virtually every dealer and auction-sale catalogue issued in America and England and many issued on the Continent, conducted extensive negotiations by letter with private owners, and each summer, until the outbreak of war, visited the book markets of Europe." Only one who has been "through the mill" can thoroughly understand the amount of detail involved in such work, but in the case of the Folger Library the results here recounted fully justify the time and attention given their acquisition.

A reviewer should not comment item by item on all the acquisitions listed in this *Report*. It is sufficient to say that none are unimportant and that those interested in the Folger Library are strongly urged to read the whole with care. It would, however, be a definite neglect of duty for any reviewer to fail to mention two important purchases the possession of which would render any library notable but which, added to the treasures assembled by Henry Clay Folger, makes the library which bears his name supreme in the Western Hemisphere in the field of English books printed in the period 1475-1640 and one of but three or four libraries in the world pre-eminent for the study of English drama. I refer to the purchase of the Sir Leicester Harsworth Collection of well over nine thousand titles of English-printed books, 1475-1640, and to the acquisition of the manuscripts from Loseley Park in Surrey.

The Loseley Park manuscripts are important not for their numbers but for their very great significance in the history of the English stage. Included among them are 171 items which constitute virtually all the extant records of the Office of the Revels under the reigns of Henry VIII, Edward VI, and Mary and the early years of Elizabeth. They constitute the chief source for the development of English drama under court patronage during the pre-Shakespeare years and are now for the first time available to scholars in their entirety. In addition, Loseley Park transferred to the Folger Library practically all the extant documents relating to those two famous theaters, the First

and Second Blackfriars. It was the Second Blackfriars which Shakespeare and his troupe occupied in the latter years of his life, while the First is notable for its occupancy by Richard Farrant and, later, by John Lyly. Highly significant among the Loseley Park acquisitions, although quite apart from the material on the drama, are 18 important John Donne letters and 151 manuscripts of outstanding literary and historical interest.

But it is the addition of the Harmsworth Collection that highlights the progress made since 1931. Concerned with all fields of English belles-lettres except the drama, Sir Leicester Harmsworth had brought together one of the world's greatest collections of English-printed books in the period 1475-1640, and it proved the exact complement to round out the picture of English pre-1640 life in which Mr. Folger had supplied the source material for the study of the drama. Histories, music, poetry, books of exploration of America and the Far East, English translations of the classics, works of the great humanists, and an excellent representation of works by theologians and on the religious life of England—all combine to mirror the English life of the sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries and to provide the setting in which, and the materials with which, Shakespeare and the other dramatists of his period worked.

Nor has the period following that of Shakespeare's immediate influence been neglected in Dr. Adams' labors. Perhaps the greatest disciple of Shakespeare in the century after his death, John Dryden was noted for his adaptations of the greater dramatist's plots. Percy J. Dobell, the English book-dealer, brought together over many years one of the best-known collections of Drydeniana; and now this collection, exclusive of duplicates, has its permanent home in the Folger Library. Also, through the gifts of Henry N. Paul of Philadelphia—another ardent Shakespeare enthusiast—and, later, by his active co-operation in purchasing, great progress has been made in rounding out the library's fine collection of editions of Shakespeare's works issued between the close of the seventeenth century and the present day.

The Report also shows how well collections of original editions of other famous authors of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries are being amplified—Sir John Harington, Samuel Daniel, Francis Bacon, and Francis Quarles, to mention but a select few.

Students of the English drama have already

begun to beat a path to "the Folger," as the library is now being familiarly referred to by its users and friends; but for those who have not entered its doors or made use of its facilities by correspondence this chronicle of its collections and activities will reveal that the usual aids of a thoroughly modern library are now available to readers and correspondents. Mr. Folger located the collection in the national capital, both because he wished it to assume from the very beginning its importance as a national heritage and because scholars could benefit from its use even more through its nearness to the wealth of material in the Library of Congress. And this they do, benefiting also from other famous collections near at hand, notably the Army Medical Library and that in the Department of Agriculture. No scholar can work his best, however, unless the library in which he labors is administered in his interest; and it is the aim of the Folger staff not only to supply the usual mechanical aids, catalogs of its own resources, bibliographies, scholarly periodicals, general reference works, photostat service, etc., but also to afford the scholar that warm hospitality and informal spirit of helpful friendliness in which research germinates and thrives.

Two other Folger projects promise much for the cause of scholarship in Elizabethan research. In 1935 the trustees established two annual fellowships for young scholars of unusual promise who are working in fields in which the library's collections are strong, and in the same year they authorized the director to initiate a series of publications designed to render available to the world at large some of the library's unique treasures. The Report reveals that the first five volumes of this series have now appeared, headed by a collotype facsimile of the hitherto unproduced first quarto of Shakespeare's *Titus Andronicus* (1594).

The general public has made good use of the institution's museum facilities, more than a million persons having visited the beautiful exhibition gallery since its opening. For these visitors, as well as for teachers, students, and others, the library has placed on sale four sets of collotype prints illustrative of its treasures. It utilizes its auditorium—a faithfully reconstructed Elizabethan playhouse—for occasional lectures, recitals, and concerts.

Formal cataloging of the library's collections was begun in 1935, with Dr. Edwin E. Willoughby directing the work. Since the principles of

scientific bibliography are being utilized for its great 1475-1640 collection, the work will take a long time to complete; but the director evidently feels that the results will be so important a detailed record as to justify the time and labor involved. Already twenty-six other research libraries are subscribing to the cards as issued. A "working" catalog of the modern books has been found very necessary, and temporary slips together with Library of Congress cards are serving until a more permanent record can be made. Other sections of the collection may have to await the completion of the work on the "1640" English volumes. It will be interesting to note whether the library's commitments to scientific bibliographical cataloging hold firmly against the possible demands of research workers that all the resources of the institution be made available for consultation as speedily as possible. Scholars are insatiable and usually impatient with delays in cataloging. Finding-lists of the entire printed collection may have to be utilized as a temporary expedient if the demand becomes too great. A special classification fitting the peculiar requirements of the Folger is now in operation for at least a portion of the collections.

Every library with a goodly percentage of rare printed material has its quota, whether large or small, of "association books"—volumes which by their autographed signatures or inscriptions show evidence of their having belonged to persons of eminence or notoriety in this world's affairs. The Folger is no exception to this rule; in fact, the number and importance of its holdings of this character, considering the limited scope of the institution, is really remarkable. Now its director reveals that one of these items—a duplicate copy of William Lambarde's *Archiaonomia* (1568), acquired as one of a lot at Sotheby's for the munificent sum of £1—bids fair to eclipse all its fellows in its value for its new home. For, when its badly crumpled title-page was ironed out, there appeared the signature "Wm. Shakespere," which had hitherto been entirely concealed by many tiny wrinkles. Faint from bad water-staining, the signature bears every indication of being authentic; examinations by paleographers under exhaustive microscopic, chemical, photographic, and other tests, together with "a detailed comparison with the signatures of the poet accepted as genuine," have so far failed to shake the belief of the experts consulted that a genuine signature of the greatest English

dramatist has at last come to rest in the United States. Dr. Adams is careful to say that "absolute certainty cannot now be established," and no one knowing him will doubt that any and every test not yet made will be tried, but we also know that there can be no more fitting home for an authenticated Shakespeare signature than the Folger Shakespeare Memorial Library. For that reason we shall hope that its authenticity may soon be established to the satisfaction of all.

LESLIE E. BLISS

*Huntington Library  
San Marino, California*

*The Chicago Public Library: Origins and Backgrounds.* By GWLADYS SPENCER. ("University of Chicago Studies in Library Science.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1943. Pp. xvii+473. \$4.50.

Carl B. Roden, librarian of the Chicago Public Library, has been heard to remark that there are disadvantages in being the head of an institution located in the same city as a graduate library school. The public library, being at hand, inevitably becomes the school's favorite guinea pig; and, while the guinea pig may be necessary to the advancement of knowledge, no one has much reason for believing that he enjoys his role.

But if proximity has its penalties it also has its advantages. Among these Miss Spencer's book must certainly be counted, for it undoubtedly owes its inception to the geographical accident that located the Chicago Public Library and the University of Chicago Graduate Library School only eight miles apart.

I assume, of course, that it is an advantage to an institution to have its history thoroughly established. Perhaps the assumption is not always valid, but it holds for the Chicago Public Library, whose past has been obscured by at least one myth—the persistent legend that it owes its origin to a large donation of books from England soon after the devastating fire of 1871.

There was an English donation, and it was gratefully received. (Curiously, nothing is known about the man who originated the movement—one A. H. Burgess.) But Miss Spencer proves conclusively that the English donation had nothing to do with the establishment of the library. That was the result of forces which were wholly indigenous and would

have brought the institution into existence, fire or no fire.

As early as 1832—a year before Chicago was incorporated as a town—books were being loaned to the children of the first Sunday school. The Chicago Lyceum, organized in 1834, had a library for the benefit of its members. In 1841 the Young Men's Association—most direct forerunner of the Chicago Public Library—was organized; and for the next thirty years this organization carried most of the burden of the city's library service.

But neither the Young Men's Association nor the other organizations which supported libraries could really fill the need. By 1871 many influential citizens had become convinced that the only solution was a tax-supported public institution. The *Chicago Tribune* put on a vigorous campaign toward this end and brought it to a culmination with an editorial calling on the wealthy men of the city to join in purchasing a lot and erecting a suitable building. The editorial appeared on October 8, 1871. That evening Mrs. O'Leary's cow kicked over the lantern. By morning most of Chicago's wealthy men were penniless.

By that time, however, the General Assembly of Illinois had under consideration a bill authorizing local governments to levy taxes for library purposes. The bill was the single-handed creation of Erastus Swift Willcox of Peoria, who had been having the same financial troubles there that those interested in Chicago libraries had experienced. The Chicagoans joined forces with Willcox, the bill passed, and the Chicago Public Library was organized.

Miss Spencer—whose book, be it noted, is concerned only with background and beginnings—treats the library situation in Illinois generally in considerable detail. Sometimes, in the name of background, she seems to get almost too far afield. Her long survey of Chicago's history and her detailed description of the city's government are both admirable in themselves, but one wonders whether summaries one-fourth as long would not have served just as well.

Miss Spencer has utilized all the mechanical devices of scholarship—section headings, chapter summaries, charts and tables, and an amplitude of footnotes—and these do not make for easy reading. Nevertheless, she writes workmanlike prose, and her book has that further

appeal which comes from the full mastery of a subject.

PAUL M. ANGLE

*State Historical Library  
Springfield, Illinois*

*Two Year Report of the Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore's Public Library, 1940-1941.*  
Baltimore: Enoch Pratt Free Library, 1942.  
Pp. 125.

In reviewing this *Report* attention should be called to the series of reports, "Reorganization of a Large Public Library . . . 1926-1935," and the biennial volumes 1936-39, which give an account of the planning and development of a modern departmentalized library. The current issue is a picture of a library in action during a difficult time, and it reveals to the initiated the strong and weak points of the system. It would be possible to take this report and distinguish between those branches and departments which were fully aware of the impact of the war upon their problems and services and those which were less alert. This impact was particularly heavy upon the technical and business sections and upon the history department, which supplied the background books on this world-wide conflict.

The chief development within the system during the period was the expansion of the branch services to meet the problems arising from lack of downtown parking space, tire rationing, civilian defense activities, and other wartime disruptions. These difficulties presented a greater opportunity to the branches, and the entire organization was made more flexible in order to make additional reference and circulating materials available through the branch libraries. It is with regret that we note that this will be the last of these valuable reports until after the war.

PAUL HOWARD

*Gary Public Library  
Gary, Indiana*

*Gabriel Naudé, 1600-1653.* By JAMES V. RICE.  
(*"Johns Hopkins Studies in Romance Literatures and Languages," Vol. XXXV.*) Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1939. Pp. 134.  
\$1.25.

This doctoral dissertation from one of our best-reputed graduate schools shows patient research and industrious reading and study;

its subject is well chosen for the circumscribed field of such an exercise, limited as it is to the life and most important writings of the author, and it is admittedly fresh, in the usual rather artificial sense that there is no other recent book on the same man. The documents necessary were found in the libraries of the United States and in Paris, where Mr. Rice seems to have spent at least a few months. Perhaps of more importance, the considerable amount of scholarly effort that the professors at Hopkins have been directing into the general area of humanist interest in which this study lies gives the reader some assurance that the writer speaks with a background of familiarity with the landmarks of thought and letters of the seventeenth century. The doctorate which this book won for Mr. Rice was reasonably deserved; original neither in method nor in conclusions, it fills a modest gap in the row of monographs we need on the skeptics of the period in which Renaissance questionings turned gradually into the methods of scientific investigation. It is scholarly in the superficial attributes of footnotes, some bibliographical indications, and an Index limited in the bad French manner to proper names; so that for the time being we may write Gabriel Naudé off the list of subjects open for doctoral treatment by American scholars-in-the-making.

However, to leave the matter at that does not seem entirely just: every thesis published by our university presses offers a renewed opportunity for appraisal of the training received by our younger scholars and teachers—an occasion, therefore, for the estimation of the value of creative scholarship in America as a contribution to the national culture. Passing over the frequent misprints, a few errors in the citation of titles, and the confusion of proper names inevitable when a young scholar is asked to manipulate some two or three hundred personages of the post-Renaissance republic of letters, one may legitimately question the feel of the book as a whole, its tone and manner, its human significance. Inquiries of this sort can and should be made about all books written under such circumstances as these; they are exercises demanded of all who expect to teach the younger generations in American colleges, and they will give us the clearest evidence of the qualities of taste and culture under which the reading public of the future is being formed. Reluctance to comment on these aspects of

scholarly production reflects, no doubt, a pessimism about the possibility of overcoming the circumstances, economic mostly, responsible for the objectionable qualities. In large part, of course, the duty of correcting the specific defects of text and fact lies with the teacher and the examining committee; the teacher's guidance must create the atmosphere in which the dissertation is to be produced, while it is the committee of faculty who must see that the product is literate and convincing in its argument before it is presented to the world of scholars. But, before this last stage of the making of a scholar begins, there are other influences at work, more important in the total picture, which determine the kind of mind the student carries over from his undergraduate years and which have more to do with the quality of the product than his advanced instruction, seminars, and directed research, and his opportunities for a year or two abroad or for freedom from teaching and correcting duties during his years of graduate study.

These influences center in and radiate from the libraries in which he will have learned to be a humanist. They will have taught him what he knows and loves in books; how he uses them, what he knows about them, and what they teach him reveal to us the qualities of the libraries he has grown up in. In discussing this aspect of Mr. Rice's work, I am not offering a particular indictment of the great library in which he probably did most of the work on this book; these comments and questions can be applied to the conditions of humanistic study in innumerable colleges in America. One wonders whether they are not more concerned with accessioning and cataloging than with the acquisition of the backlog of fine old books in front of which the spiritual fire of any young humanist must be kindled. Do they consistently exploit their treasures to show him, while he is still impressionable, that there is an art and a science of the book, that books are a clear index of the taste and temper of the age that brought them forth, that every line and ornament, every page, every detail of the making of a book reflect the scale of values of its creator? Have they taught him that a book conveys not only fact or idea or passing pleasure to the casual, but warmth of personality, or its opposite, to the skilled, reader? That bindings and margins and the quality of paper reflect not only the artisan but also the

conscience of the writer and his respect for his own effort?

It is not that Mr. Rice's book is written as though the science of bibliography did not exist; there is no absolute necessity that he should discuss the variant editions of Naudé's writings—fascinating game though that may appear to an outsider. Nor is there even any real need that he give us precise and complete descriptions of the books he used. He may even be excused for writing of a great librarian as if his chief claim to fame were that of a political essayist and for saying that there is "no permanent interest" in the *Avis pour dresser une bibliothèque*, although that small text is the rarest of the Naudé items remembered today, commands the best price at sales, and has been more consistently reprinted than any other of his numerous writings. Such deficiencies represent rather a weakness in the position of the library tradition in the college hierarchy; the tools of humane learning are valued too low, perhaps even by librarians. It is trite to say that the essential business of our libraries is the preservation of a heritage of political liberty and free discussion; it is hardly less important to say that most of them could spend their time very profitably learning to know their own treasures better rather than on the unnecessarily intricate and cumbersome Library of Congress catalog system. Here and there one does find libraries that are not organized like industries; their catalog may be highly individual, but it is adequate for its staff and its readers; the books, even the oldest books, are in front of the reference desk and the reader's guides which prevent the reader from learning by the experience of reading. But with the effects of depression and war and the urge to reach a living wage quickly, even without an education, one wonders how long it will be before the last of the old-style learned librarians has turned into an efficient manipulator of charging devices and reading machines. The incongruity of seeing a book on Gabriel Naudé turned out as if it were an ephemeral treatise on price control, without Naudé's taste in books, without much insight into the man himself, without a sign of Naudé's passionate love and penetrating knowledge of old books, is not only a reflection on the American university, it is a reflection on American culture and taste.

HARCOURT BROWN

Brown University

*Twentieth Century Authors: A Biographical Dictionary of Modern Literature.* Edited by STANLEY J. KUNITZ and HOWARD HAYCRAFT. ("Authors" series.) New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1942. Pp. vii+1577. \$8.50.

This biographical dictionary is an indispensable tool for any library that boasts even a modest reference department. It will also prove invaluable to anyone with a modicum of curiosity concerning the men and women who have done, or are doing, the imaginative and nonimaginative writing of our time.

No sound judgment of the book can be made except in the light of its explicit editorial objectives and limitations. Its primary aim is to "provide a foundation-volume of authentic biographical information on the writers of this century, of all nations, whose books are familiar to readers of English" (italics mine). This volume not only supersedes *Living Authors* and *Authors Today and Yesterday* but more than doubles the usefulness of the earlier books, since they together presented about eight hundred authors and the new work includes more than eighteen hundred and fifty. The most valuable single feature of the work is the very large number of biographical sketches contributed by the authors themselves. The bibliographies that conclude each biographical sketch are limited, as the editors frankly acknowledge, to "the principal works, with original dates of publication"; they are "selective and practical, not definitive in nature, nor should they be cited in determining debatable 'firsts' or obscure bibliographical points." The editors have been well advised not only to include short lists of references to each author but also to augment the biographical sketches with quotations from well-known English and American critics. The more than seventeen hundred photographs that accompany the sketches are variously successful. All of them, though sometimes seriously out of date, were worth including. Those of Lawrence Hope, looking like a Victorian bridesmaid in a large "picture hat," or Laura Riding, as interpreted by a somewhat frenetic artist, or Somerset Maugham, gazing cynically heavenward, go some distance in justifying the high price of the volume.

The editors have been generous in their conception of what authorship in the twentieth century means. They have found room not only for hundreds of imaginative writers but also for scientists like Alexis Carrel, Patrick

Geddes, and Karl Pearson; philosophers like Henri Bergson and Alfred North Whitehead; historians like J. S. Bassett and A. C. McLaughlin (but not Carl Becker); a statesman like Winston Churchill (but not Woodrow Wilson or Theodore or Franklin D. Roosevelt); a theologian like Reinhold Niebuhr (but not Karl Barth); and a host of academic scholars like P. H. Boynton, W. P. Ker, and A. H. Thorndike. The imaginative writers range from exotics like Djuna Barnes and Raymond Radiguet to low-brows like Henry Bedford-Jones and Temple Bailey. Journalists are here in good numbers; one finds Arthur Brisbane and O. O. McIntyre but looks vainly for Westbrook Pegler and Walter Winchell. The editors have hopefully included a number of gifted but as yet relatively unproductive writers like Dorothy Baker and A. C. Bessie. One regrets the omission of such well-known playwrights as James Brodie, George Shiels, and Denis Johnston, all of whom have had plays produced in America; such productive young poets as George Barker and Lawrence Whistler; and so influential a critic as William Empson, whose *Seven Types of Ambiguity* is already a collector's item. The most serious type of omission is that of Ibero-American writers who are certainly as well known in the United States as some dozens of minor European writers included. One thinks, for example, of such writers as "Gabriela Mistral," Alfonso Reyes, and Eduardo Mallea.

In a volume that includes hundreds of thousands, if not millions, of facts and details there are bound to be errors; and in a volume as painstakingly edited as this one it is ungracious, perhaps, to point out that Hugh Fausset's middle name is "I'Anson" and not "L'Anson" and that the play on which Wilder's *The Merchant of Yonkers* was based was not by Plautus but by Johann Nestroy, who in turn borrowed from a farce by John Oxenford. On page 1270, "St. John Erskine" should, of course, read "St. John Ervine," unless the author of *The Private Life of Helen of Troy* has been surreptitiously sainted. The fact that Frieda Lawrence was the wife of Ernest Weekley is mentioned in the sketch of Lawrence but not in that of Weekley. To the works about Wassermann, J. C. Blankenagel's *The Writings of Jacob Wassermann* (1942) should surely be added.

The inestimable interest and value of this monumental work encourages one to hope that

the H. W. Wilson Company will see its way clear to preparing and publishing a universal dictionary of authors, in which the basis of selection shall be not a rather provincially American interest in the entries but rather the distinction and popularity of the authors not only of the more familiar European countries but also of the twenty countries in Ibero-America and of China, Japan, and India.

FRED B. MILLETT

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*The Reference Function of the Library: Papers Presented before the Library Institute at the University of Chicago, June 29 to July 10, 1942.* Edited by PIERCE BUTLER. ("University of Chicago Studies in Library Science.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1943. Pp. x+366. \$3.00.

All librarians have reason to be grateful to the University of Chicago Graduate Library School and to the Carnegie Corporation for making possible the growing body of professional literature emanating from the institutes for librarians held at the University of Chicago for the last seven summers. The literature dealing with reference function and theory is scanty and scattered, and this collection of papers from the seventh Library Institute answers a definite need for a fresh and critical examination of the reference aspect of librarianship. As Dr. Louis R. Wilson brings out in his Foreword, the tremendous increase and specialization in the resources of American university and research libraries and the development of the facilities for study and research have presented many new, complex problems to librarians responsible for reference work. The seventeen papers included in the volume are concerned with (1) the reference function in various types of libraries; (2) analyses of problems met in some of the special fields, such as art and music, the social sciences, science and technology, and special collections, such as maps and rare books; (3) the administration of reference departments; (4) selection of books and supplementary reference materials; (5) personnel and training; (6) special reference functions in wartime.

In his introductory essay the editor, Dr. Pierce Butler, applies the spur to librarians with the assertion that the library profession has not "learned to think seriously about it-

self in general terms" and that, until it does develop an adequate theory, "its members must continue to be inarticulate no matter how vociferous they may become." For good measure he adds that librarians "are unable to discuss rationally the broader aspects of their profession among themselves or with other people." The essay gives a background of theory and indicates for reference work a distinctive place as one of the informative processes in the transmission of knowledge.

The first six papers which follow cover the reference function in as many types of libraries. Mr. McCombs' paper, "The Reference Function in the Large Public Library," is more a survey of the problems of administering the reference work in a large library than an analysis of the reference function. This reviewer wished that he had developed more fully the underlying theory of the reference function of the large public library in relation to the community and its institutions and to the many sources of information in the community. His suggestion for setting up a regional reference council in the large library center to consider common problems of service and acquisition is an excellent one.

One of the chief problems discussed by Mr. McCombs is the provision of satisfactory service for the trained investigator, on the one hand, and for the person with little or no training in the use of books as tools, on the other. He suggests as a possible solution the provision in the same library of separate facilities to care for the two types; the needs of the average man could be met satisfactorily by a separate "popular" reference library or by regional reference centers in branch libraries. Two things, he says, characterize reference work in the large library—the greater dependence upon the catalog and the minor importance of the classification. He suggests that, although it is a convenience to have books arranged by subjects, the question of fixed versus relative location may become of minor importance when most books are on closed shelves.

Paul Howard's paper on "The Reference Function in the Small and Medium-sized Public Library" focuses on the community in which the library is situated. He sees the library as a community intelligence center whose reference service and book collection are fitted to the needs of the community and thinks that striving to achieve a so-called well-rounded collection is short sighted. He bases his dis-

cussion on an interesting analysis of types of communities, distinguishing between satellite and independent communities, the former being subdivided into two types—industrial and residential—and the latter into four—industrial, commercial, institutional, and resort; and he indicates the necessary variations in functions and services for each type.

In these two papers on the reference function in the public library one misses a consideration of certain aspects of the reference function, as, for example, the bibliographic aspect. Are not the knowledge and expert use of bibliographies an important phase of reference work? To what extent is the compilation of bibliographies a part of the reference function? Greater consideration of the card catalog—certainly a most important reference tool—would have been helpful. To what extent is the reference function in public libraries instructional in nature? How closely allied to readers' advisory work is it? And what is its relation to research in the public library?

The paper on "The Reference Function in the School Library" by Miss Frances Henne is a competent and thoughtful article on the educational functions of reference work with students and with teachers. Her outline of problems affecting school libraries which warrant investigation and study should be useful to those looking for areas of investigation in this field.

Guy Lyle's contribution on "The Reference Function in the College Library" is an ably written, interesting discussion, emphasizing methods of assisting readers in the use of library materials. In his opinion this is one of the main objectives of reference work in the college library. He concludes with an analysis of the reference function in college libraries in relation to research and a discussion of reference service to alumni and to members of the college community.

Homer Halvorson in "The Reference Function in the University and Research Library" also stresses the instructional aspects of reference work, stating that "those reference librarians who fail to keep the instructional function in mind . . . succeed only in interfering with the intellectual development of the prospective scholar." Discussing the bibliographical services which the well-trained reference librarian can render, and especially the bibliographical function involved in interlibrary loan work, he suggests the subsidization of interlibrary loan

service by a national foundation interested in scholarship and research.

Reference librarians struggling with fledgling map collections will find "Problems in Map Collections" by Lloyd Brown full of helpful suggestions. The choice of maps for the reference collection he admits is a troublesome problem, since there are few tools upon which to rely. His suggestion that the *Booklist* devote space in each issue to current map publications will meet with approval by librarians. Mr. Brown makes concrete suggestions concerning types of maps to buy and points to consider in selecting them.

Paul Angle's paper, "Reference Work in the Rare-Book Room," is a welcome addition to the scanty literature of the subject and offers many helpful suggestions to the reference librarian.

Albert H. Carter's brilliant essay, "The Humanist in the Library," gives an insight into and an analysis of the types of materials needed by the humanist for the solution of his problems. He urges reference librarians to make more indexes to materials that will "guide the student to the human activities reflected therein," to be a "collector of records as well as a keeper and sorter of records," to collect the seemingly valueless documents and records of the community which will reflect for later generations its culture, activities, and interests. He pays tribute to the bibliographical work of such librarians and humanists as McKerrow, Simpson, Pollard, and Greg and urges upon the reference librarian the task of making bibliographical contributions.

John W. Spargo in "Book Selection for Reference Work" is, as he says, much more interested in spurring reference librarians to create new reference books or study old ones than he is in evolving principles for the selection of books already in existence. His paper is a scholar's stinging but genial challenge to reference librarians to know their books more intimately, to produce scholarly studies of their own, and to blaze trails by compiling critical bibliographies to aid scholars who follow them.

In "Administrative Problems in Reference Work" Mary Barton offers an able discussion, direct and practical, of the pros and cons of the various methods of organizing and administering reference service. From the standpoint of service, she says, it is hard to justify the separation of periodicals and government publications from the other material on a subject. An advocate of subject departmentalization,

she recognizes certain disadvantages for which she offers possible solutions. In her opinion one of the dangers of departmentalization is the attempt on the part of departments to become self-sustained little libraries within a library, and she comments on the value of frequent conferences of department heads in the interest of co-ordination. She discusses the function of the general reference department in a subject-departmentalized library and outlines sensible procedures to follow in answering readers' requests and seeing that readers are sent to the proper department. Her remarks on building up a competent reference staff and on the importance of affording opportunities for continuing education are sound and helpful.

Anne Boyd's paper on "Personnel and Training for Reference Work" is an important and forward-looking contribution which should be read by everyone interested in the future of reference work. She points out the fallacies inherent in the traditional concept of the first-year reference course, based on a mastery of certain reference books, which fails to distinguish between learning how to use a book and how to use a collection and between acquiring a knowledge of reference books and a knowledge of reference work. Miss Boyd urges the integration of the book-selection and reference courses into a reader-centered course which would aim to give training in the use of the essential basic tools for library service and to provide opportunity to study critically the literature of some field in which the student has special knowledge. In her opinion the advanced reference course should emphasize bibliographic method and aim at training for research librarianship.

Dr. Kuhlman in his article "Supplementary Reference Materials" provides us with a summary of fugitive materials in their relation to reference work, together with a discussion of some of the tools needed to enable the reference worker to make the most effective use of printed and other library materials. Appended to his paper is a list of needed reference aids based upon suggestions received from a number of reference librarians. Certainly the reference librarian would welcome heartily the publication of the tools suggested.

The final paper in the volume, "Special Reference Functions in Wartime" by Russell Munn, is an interesting discussion of the complex wartime problems met by the reference librarian, the organization and activities of war

information centers, and the opportunities for community co-operation.

If reference librarians are spurred on to make contributions of their own and to overcome some of the "inarticulateness" of which they have been accused, they will not lack themes for studies or bibliographical ventures, for the volume abounds in mention of topics and areas that should be investigated. We hope that it will be the precursor of many other studies in the reference field.

MABEL LOUISE CONAT

*Detroit Public Library*

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*Public Library Service to Business: A Comparative Study of Its Development in Cities of 70,000 and More.* By MARIAN C. MANLEY. Newark, N.J.: Public Library, 1942. Pp. 217. \$3.50.

This is the second survey of business service in public libraries, made just ten years after the initial survey compiled by Marian C. Manley in 1930. The first study covered the service in 109 large cities, while in this study 113 cities are covered, 4 additional cities having come into the 70,000 population group since the first survey was made.

From the standpoint of public relations, careful examination of this volume should serve to convince librarians, library board members, officials, and laymen of the importance of this phase of library service. It indicates that to provide accountants, attorneys, office workers, time-study engineers, statisticians, investors, small businessmen, commercial and economic research workers, and others with materials needed for their daily work is indeed "one of the most satisfying methods through which the value of the library may be demonstrated."

The book is based on replies to a questionnaire submitted to several libraries in 1941. It is in three parts. Part I, "Comparisons, Trends, Conclusions," summarizes the information presented in the replies to the questionnaire in an effort to show comparisons and trends and to draw conclusions. These comments are, in the main, made up of quotations from the replies, so that there is no genuine evaluation or critical discussion of this field of library service. The compiler obviously has tried to present the field as it is today, using for her text the reports of the librarians with little or no editorial comment.

Part II, "The Questionnaire—Summary of

Replies," presents each of the nineteen questions in turn and under each summarizes the replies of each library.

Part III, "Supplementary Information," consists of four Appendixes: "I. List of Cooperating Libraries with Names of Chief Librarian and of the Business Service Head"; "II. Administrative Data, Giving Appropriations, Hours Service Is Available, and Size of Staff"; "III. A Bibliography on Public Library Service to Business"; "IV. Directory and Periodical Checklists Included in the Publication Entitled *Business and the Public Library* Issued in 1940 by the Public Business Librarians' Group of the Special Libraries Association."

The book is, in reality, a source book for the study of the development of this type of service, the greater part of it giving actual answers to questions in the words of the librarians addressed. This has its advantages but also certain disadvantages, for it is obvious that some of the replies do not give so comprehensive a picture as work in the respective libraries would merit, while others give an impression of more significant work than is known to be the case. Questionnaires, no matter how carefully prepared, are not interpreted alike by all who are invited to answer them. This condition is evident in this survey. Some answers are applicable to libraries other than the library making them. For instance, in answer to Question 15 ("What steps are taken to develop and stimulate the business reference staff?") four mention membership or active participation in the Special Libraries Association. Many more of the 37 libraries have staff members who are active in this association, the work of which is so germane to business information service; but in at least 9 cases that was a fact "assumed as self-evident" and therefore not mentioned specifically. Out of 58 answers to Question 13 (on the scope and development of special collections), 7 mentioned that they were "a depository library for United States Government Documents." Others in the group are known to be similar depository libraries, but that fact was not interpreted by the librarians as contributing to a "special collection." One librarian replied: "We have state and federal documents (complete)." This statement is open to question when one considers that the library of the Superintendent of Documents in Washington, D.C., is admittedly incomplete in its file of federal documents. Of 99 answers to

Question 4 ("Describe briefly your service through the following channels: direct, telephone, correspondence"), 6 included statistics of attendance and of reference questions, one mentioned the period for which books are circulated, and one said: "We locate information when asked to, or refer them to the University of Texas' very full business library," while most of the others responded only in the words of the question—"direct," "by telephone," "by correspondence," or "We use all three methods." These examples show how differently various librarians may interpret the same question. Although such a variety of answers can lead the investigator to proper channels for further research, a professional student would naturally recognize the limitations of interpreting the development of business service from these answers.

The book lacks an index, and it is awkward to have to refer back and forth to find out which question is being answered. However, because the literature in the field of business library service is still very scarce and the field itself still in the pioneer stage, any added or comparative information concerning it is needed and welcome. This survey is a worth-while contribution in that it affords a picture not only of the work as it stands today but also of the librarians delegated to do it (judging from the adequacy or inadequacy of their replies), of the appropriations made for it by budget commissions or chief librarians, and of the chief librarians' recognition of its significance. One might well study the questionnaire, formulate desirable aims for business library service, and with the data herein presented make a further study of the whole scope of business information service, its fundamental nature, and its implications, involving as it does the need for great flexibility to meet changing economic conditions.

ROSE L. VORMELKER

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Cleveland Public Library*

*The Reading Interests and Needs of Negro College Freshmen Regarding Social Science Materials.*  
By WALTER GREEN DANIEL. ("Contributions to Education," No. 862.) New York:  
Bureau of Publications, Teachers College,  
Columbia University, 1942. Pp. xii+128.  
\$1.60.

Dr. Daniel's study proposes to answer this question: In view of their interests and needs,

what materials related to the social sciences should be made available for the reading of Negro college Freshmen? His analysis of interests is based on returns from 489 Freshmen at Howard University; that of needs, on the judgment of 61 authorities comprising professors of the social sciences, writers in the field, and librarians with some interest and training in these subjects and in book selection. In conclusion he offers fairly specific recommendations for use of the study as a book-selection tool in Negro college libraries.

Interest was measured by means of a check list of one hundred titles fairly equally divided among social, economic, and political nonfiction and fiction dealing with one or all of these subjects. Students were classed for purposes of comparison as intending to teach or to enter medicine and reclassified as majors in the social sciences, natural sciences, or languages (including English), and each group was further divided by sex wherever the resulting number was large enough for statistical significance.

Many of the general findings parallel those of other reading studies: the strongest factor in determining interests is sex; all students give first preference to reading about persons or circumstances most closely related to themselves and prefer objective and specific treatment of any subject to more abstract discussion; women like personal and fictional material better than do men. Certain more particular results might well have interest beyond this study, as, for example, the finding that prospective teachers are much more interested in social science reading than prospective doctors (both these groups male) and language majors considerably more than even social science majors (both these groups female). The fact that, in the first case, major subject and, in the second, prospective occupation were not controlled, however, robs these last findings of decisive significance. The comparison is further blurred by the fact that, when prospective teachers of both sexes were considered (major interest not indicated), women were much more interested in reading than men were. Thus sex also is a virtually uncontrolled factor in the cases above. Insufficient numbers, of course, not indifference, prevented stricter analysis.

Statistical operations in the study are sound but complicated, and the account of them, though comprehensible, unhappily does not achieve the lucidity of much recent writing in the field. Particularly is this true of the various

index numbers used in tables, with no clarifying statement to assist interpretation. In the chapter on use of the study the simplified indices and symbols are somewhat more adequate to practical application.

The estimate of Freshman need of social science reading is based on returns from the jury of sixty-one specialists who checked lists identical with the students'. In general, the jury's vote differed from the interest record in stressing need for more general and abstract material and in disparaging the value of fiction-reading. The reactions of the jury to the check list were particularly interesting in view of what seems to the present writer a weakness in form of the list. Two methods have been employed to date in reading studies. One—as in Waples and Tyler, *What People Want To Read About*—uses small subject headings, each of which represents a fair number of specific titles in current literature. These topics are presented in phraseology uniformly abstract and almost uniform in length. The other method studies library circulation of specific titles, or student reports of reading them, and makes subject generalizations, if at all, in terms quite different from those of any individual title. (See S. W. McAllister, "Some Observations on the Reading of University Students," *Library Journal*, LVII [1932], 163-65, and Leon Carnovsky, "A Study of the Relationship between Reading Interests and Actual Reading," *Library Quarterly*, IV [1934], 76-110.)

Dr. Daniel's method in compiling his list was to select one hundred titles in the social sciences by careful checking of the *Cumulative Book Index* and the *Book Review Digest* for the years 1933-39; the technique of selection appears beyond criticism. In preparing the actual check lists, however, he wrote for each title an annotation "that described the main content of the book without being colored by allusions to style, evaluation, or significance of contribution. Titles and authors were omitted in order to focus attention on the nature of the content as explained, and to eliminate the personal prejudices for or against certain authors and titles or wording." Naturally, a number of authorities in the field took exception to this hybrid of general and specific. Objecting to the omission of authors' names, one said: "A brilliant mind could make a real contribution in his treatment of a trite subject. On the other hand, an author without information or imagination would do little good and much harm in his work on a vital topic." It is unlikely that such criticism would

have been leveled at abstract phrases representing no particular book.

From the viewpoint of student reaction a different but related objection arises. Do what one will to make annotation wholly representative of a book, slight variance in phrasing can greatly affect interest. This is particularly true in the case of immature readers with regard to abstract, as against concrete, words (see the work of Mrs. C. E. Morrise as cited in Chancellor, "Judging Readability," in Chancellor *et al.*, *Helping the Reader toward Self-education*, pp. 85-87). Consider, for example, such variations as the following: (1) "A simplified discussion of current monetary programs"; (2) "analyzes selected problems of municipal government"; (3) "a nation-wide program for industrial expansion with suggested political and administrative procedure"; (4) "outlines a method of economic planning providing for individualism and collectivism in the effort to lessen poverty." Their respective ranks in student preference, 1 being high and 100 low, are: 87.5, 85, 94, and 47.5. I doubt if W. E. Atkins, *Gold and Your Money*, E. S. Griffith, *Current Municipal Problems*, M. J. Ezekiel, *Jobs for All through Industrial Expansion*, and P. M. Martin, *Prohibiting Poverty*, would have stood in that order if examined by students or even if met in other verbal guise.

This psychological factor of phrasing should not be thought of as disqualifying the study, but it has not been taken into account at all in the very fine technical weighing of significant differences in rank of titles which makes up so large a part of the statistical treatment. In advice on the use of the study, moreover, the author treats his specific annotations as though they were actually topics, on which parallel titles could easily be found. Despite generalities such as those quoted above, this would be very difficult to do—in the case of the fiction items, virtually impossible.

These criticisms should not be thought of as vitiating the usefulness of the list for the purpose for which it was intended. The one hundred carefully selected titles would make an excellent core collection in social science reading for any college, Negro or white, and other titles sufficiently similar could be purchased in the future if large trends rather than the minute numerical rank of individual items were considered. In short, the elaborate statistical machinery used in the study seems overdelicate both for determining the weight of items so subjec-

tively defined and for predicting the real usefulness of related material in a college library.

JEANNETTE H. FOSTER

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*Subject Index to Books for Primary Grades.* Compiled by ELOISE RUE. Chicago: American Library Association, 1943. Pp. xxxv+236. \$2.50.

In 1938 Eloise Rue brought out her index to subject material found in commonly used readers. Now, after five years of successful use, an enlarged edition called *Subject Index to Books for Primary Grades* makes its appearance.

Many new readers have been added, bringing the number to 430, including 130 unit readers. The scope of material has been expanded to include 250 books of the nonreader type—picture-books, songbooks, handicraft books, easy stories, and story collections for child and teacher use in Grades I-III. Teachers of preschool children will also welcome this work because of its subject analysis of the picture-books and handicraft books and the story collections. A few grammars and arithmetics, experimentally included, should not be overlooked. The policy of starring for first and second purchase has been continued, with the number of double stars increased from twenty to sixty. An estimate of the cost of the double-starred collection is fifty dollars.

To insure the curricular soundness and usefulness of the book, the editor has had the assistance of consultants from the library and elementary-education fields, who aided in defining the scope of the book, in selecting the subject areas and form of headings, and in choosing the titles to be indexed.

The value of the work cannot be challenged. Anyone who has been an elementary-school librarian in times past and can recall her homemade and inadequate attempts at indexing the unexplored curricular treasures in the series of readers in her storeroom will give feeling testimony of this fact. However, the reviewer, now somewhat removed from the practical field and wishing the reaction of both the librarian and the elementary teacher, asked two of her students engaged in those fields to do a little experimenting over a two-week period with the

book. Both returned enthusiastic as to its usefulness.

They felt that the work will be especially helpful in schools where there is no full-time librarian. It will be a valuable guide for the teacher in building up a classroom collection for curricular enrichment and in analyzing this collection for maximum use. It would also be especially adapted to the school in which the reading level is low, for the material indexed is naturally extremely easy. For example, books suggested for "Post Offices" and "Postmen" were considered by one second-grade teacher to be much too simple for her children; the *Children's Catalog* was much more helpful. Another elementary teacher expressed a desire for more Grade III and III+ material. In both of these cases reference to Rue's *Subject Index to Books for Intermediate Grades* (American Library Association, 1940), which supplements this work, would be in order. Brewton's *Index to Children's Poetry* (Wilson, 1942) is supplementary also, and both should be accessible to teachers and librarians of primary and preschool children, along with the work under discussion.

The majority of books indexed in Rue are included in the *Children's Catalog*, but a sampling of subjects from Rue compared with the same subjects in the *Children's Catalog* revealed very little overlapping, so that these two valuable tools should stand side by side on the catalog in an elementary-school library. The classroom teacher will find it feasible to have Rue and a good working collection of its materials as constant companions, since the combined cost of the *Index* and the double-starred titles is not prohibitive.

One other point should be kept in mind. According to the Introduction,

the earlier volume *Subject Index to Readers* should not be discarded. . . . Although more than half the reader material indexed in it has been dropped in the new index in favor of new editions and new titles, many schools and libraries still possess copies of these older titles. For them the first edition of this index will be essential as long as the older readers are in use.

The work in its original form supplied a long-felt need of educators and librarians, and Miss Rue, by expanding it to include materials other than readers, has greatly enhanced its value.

Alice Brooks Mooney

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*Books and Library Reading for Pupils of the Intermediate Grades.* By EVANGELINE COLBURN. ("Publications of the Laboratory Schools," No. 10 [October, 1942].) Chicago: University of Chicago, 1942. Pp. viii+167. \$1.50.

Reversing the usual proportion in expositions of school library practice, this treatment of the subject limits description and discussion to less than one-third of its space and gives over the rest to generously annotated book lists covering all subjects of concern to Grades IV, V, and VI in the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago. For material upon the organization and administration of the elementary library in this school the reader is referred to an earlier publication in the same series, *A Library for the Intermediate Grades*. The present volume is concerned only with the reading done there.

After a brief account of the library preparation already experienced in the primary grades, there follows a clear picture of the use made of the school library by children from fourth grade on. They have a daily period for pleasure reading, learn how to find books, acquire some standards of selection, and are given opportunity to express their opinions of the books read. The practice of requiring a record of every book read either in or out of school will be found a debatable point by many librarians, not alone because of its impracticability in large schools with large classes, but in principle. That there are points of value to the child in such records, in addition to the data yielded, is emphasized in the author's description of the process.

Other chapters discuss reading guidance, especially of the individual kind, enrichment of classroom experiences, and the selection of books for purchase. For this last important task, there is appended a comprehensive bibliography of selection aids.

Then come more than one hundred pages of annotated titles, grouped by subject, graded, and increased in usability by the specific nature of the notes. While there may be disagreement with some of the selections, there is usually also an explanation by the author of her reasons for including titles that are possibly questionable in quality or in difficulty. Assigning the Caldecott medal to *Presents for Lupe* (p. 103) is an error of fact not repeated in the list of Newbery and Caldecott awards in chapter viii. Author and title indexes are added.

The book provides a useful addition to the

few detailed accounts available of library situations in elementary schools and also a list that is a workable tool for both teachers and librarians.

JOSEPHINE DILLON

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*The Librarian and the Teacher of Music.* By ESTHER L. BOHMAN and JOSEPHINE DILLON. ("Experimenting Together.") Chicago: American Library Association, 1942. Pp. 55. \$0.75.

The third volume of the valuable "Experimenting Together" series describes a co-operative experiment designed to integrate enrichment materials with classroom activities in an elementary-school music program whose aim is defined as a rich musical experience for every child.

The library in this school, which is a training center for Western Reserve University education classes, is the library curriculum center of the Cleveland school system. Its staff of three has access to the joint library resources of the Cleveland Public Library and the Board of Education. Esther L. Bohman and Josephine K. Dillon, music teacher and librarian, respectively, at the Mount Auburn Elementary School, Cleveland, Ohio, are collaborators in experimentation and authorship of this book.

The account of the co-operative effort in research (the one phase of the program in which the library may function) demonstrates that "pleasure and satisfaction" were broadened and deepened when rich understanding and vicarious experience served as background for actual musical performance. This background, which was furnished by the library through wide variety of materials, is described in detail. Specific problems and topics dealt with are the titles of books used; the reactions of children to individual items and to the program in general; occasional analysis of book circulation to show the use made of the children's borrowings in extracurricular, club, and home activities.

The findings of the authors on the results of their experiment indicate values derived by the pupils as (1) growth in appreciation of musical works through participation in composing and presenting their compositions; (2) the development of varied tastes and abili-

ties; (3) growth in richness of personality and enthusiastic interest in musical activities; (4) a liking for high-ranking composers. Further observations deal with the need for liberty of experimentation in teaching music and the great contribution to children's development through close co-operation of music teacher and librarian.

The library is shown to benefit directly from this co-operation. Emphasis on the use of reference tools, general and special, and skill in reference techniques gained in the specific assignments showed a carry-over value in general library use.

The record of practical activities and results is indeed a sufficient contribution to library literature for one slender volume, but as great are the larger implications which are developed. Mutual understanding by librarians and music teachers of each others' objectives and resources results in benefits not only to the pupils but to the community which realizes the current cultural values for children in a school program. Although the experiment was based on the elementary level, the value of music for vitalizing class work in many subjects at the secondary level is indicated. Literature, history, art, geography, and the core courses are areas open for experimentation. Compensation to children for subaverage mental or personality endowment may be derived from the contribution of a bit of music or dance to a class activity whose level of factual substance may exceed their ordinary achievement. Songs develop an understanding patriotism by dramatizing the many facets of American culture and life. Folk music and dance (participated in by parents of various nationalities) also effectively present foreign customs and traditions. In this implication, especially, is written large the great mission of music in preparing children of today for their part in the brave new world to come with wider international understanding.

The difficult task of presenting a considerable amount of detailed information both completely and succinctly has been accomplished with skill. A nice balance is kept between factual reporting and interpretive "human interest" appraisals, without sentimentality, and the whole is presented in a style which is clear and fluid.

A Bibliography of seventy-eight items lists, alphabetically by author, the titles mentioned throughout the text.

GRACE WINTON

*Northwestern High School Library  
Detroit, Michigan*

*Prelude to Victory.* By JAMES B. RESTON. ("Pocket Books" ed.) New York: Pocket Books, Inc., 1942. Pp. 221. \$0.25.

*The Techniques of Democracy.* By ALFRED M. BINGHAM. New York: Duell, Sloan & Pearce, 1942. Pp. 314. \$3.00.

*Education for Democratic Survival.* By WALTER E. MYER and CLAY COSS. Washington: Civic Education Service, 1942. Pp. xi + 264. \$1.50.

At no time in our history has there been greater need for rethinking of democracy and for constructive criticism of democratic practices than today. These three titles help us in this rethinking process. The first is of a general nature, the second is devoted mainly to some of the problems of politics and government, and the last is concerned with democracy in education. All are frank delineations of the failures of democracy to meet the present emergency. All offer constructive suggestions, and all are optimistic about the final success of democratic principles.

*Prelude to Victory* is one of the most stimulating, logical, and informative books on the war to date. It is a call to duty, an impassioned plea for an understanding of the fact that post-war planning is vital to the prosecution of the war and that it can be done only by a people united in their ideals. It is a plea to see both the dangers and the opportunity in the crisis. The author, one of our best-informed political journalists, scores us for our indifference, our prejudices, our careless thinking, our acts of commission and omission, and our illusions. He spares no one but is clear cut, definite, and fair minded, and his words carry weight. Also, his brilliant writing, catchy phrases, and extreme earnestness sear his ideas into our minds and memories.

Mr. Bingham's thesis is that faith in democracy is at an all-time low because democracy has failed to do what we felt it should do and that the reason it failed was that its traditional techniques, like the ballot, party system, representative assembly, etc., have not been equal to the strain of the many new and unusual problems of a machine age; and he sees the solution in a modernization of these techniques. He finds definite workable suggestions in the modern science of public and private management and pleads for flexibility of mind and an application of these techniques to the problems of the post-war world.

Walter Myer and Clay Coss also feel the

challenge of the war and the world that will come after the war, and their solution is more civic education in high school and college—not just added extra-curricular studies but a real conversion of the whole curriculum to a study of the problems of a changing world. The program they present is flexible and practical in that it brings young Americans to grips with actual problems and builds habits in thinking and research which will be of lasting value. Like Reston, they plead for the use of intelligence against our enemies. Like Bingham, they make an appeal for "conversion" to meet the war needs, backed up by practical suggestions obtained from wide study and observation. The first part of the book is devoted to the program and the second to the materials, films, and radio programs found useful.

All three of the books are aimed at the "back-to-normal" people or the "business-as-usual" individuals—people afraid of the responsibility which post-war planning brings. All are aware of the worth of an informed citizenry and of the advantages to our enemy of an uninformed one. All decry lack of vision on the things which should be done and done quickly if we are to win. All advocate widespread discussion of national problems as a way of dispelling illusions which hinder success. All are rich in suggestions for librarians in their peculiar problems of meeting the crisis.

Reston is the most generally stimulating and has the greatest ability to make us squirm. He says the nation is suffering from the "apotheosis of the unimportant," and we wonder how much that applies to libraries too. His slashing common-sense statements turn our thinking back to some of the illusions we hold of our position in the educational world—the illusion, for instance, that we, as guardians of the world's truth, are supplying the vision that men need to carry them to victory; the illusion that we, as administrators, are putting first things first and testing every conceivable idea, no matter how radical, by the test: "Will it help in the war and the peace effort?" We, too, feel we need the "conversion" of mind he recommends. His statement that "too many people want to beat Hitler provided they personally or their department can do the job" gives us pause as we think of what co-operation and a tighter correlation of effort could do in many new library ventures if all the personnel were library instead of department-minded.

All three titles suggest definite areas on which libraries might well concentrate in their stimu-

lation of the thinking of adults—the basic philosophy of democracy; the value of freedom; our part in post-war planning; the history, politics, and economics that will help people face facts intelligently and dispel illusions which might minimize the war effort and defeat the peace; and concrete current problems. Bingham says the ballot failed because people were not informed on issues and candidates. Certainly, libraries need to have a keener perception of these issues and a quicker assembling of materials on them. Myer and Coss answer the question sometimes debated in library meetings as to whether we should strive for mass education or concentrate on the superior group which seeks us out. They point out that the less-educated are the more susceptible to propaganda and that all vote.

There is common emphasis also on new techniques. Bingham says fair play—the essence of democracy—broke down because of intolerance, and he especially stresses the value of the conference as an expedient for bringing men's minds into harmony. He urges more discussion as the best way to get agreement on essentials and common understanding between individuals, groups, and nations. The library could well make better use of these devices both in its internal organization and in its programs. Myer and Coss have an excellent chapter on how to make discussion really fruitful and another chapter on the part the radio and educational film can play in education on public problems.

Bingham unconsciously supports the idea of the library as a community center when he says that democracy has been unsatisfactory because it has asked for no participation in any fraternal endeavor, given no "ennobling sense of common purpose." Who better than the public library can help people to work together on a good life for the community through library discussions of common problems, whether they be rat-eradication, juvenile delinquency, or recreation facilities? He also says that before people can take a more active part in politics they must be educated; and who is better prepared for this type of adult education than the library?

He has other suggestions for political institutions which might be taken to heart by libraries. He urges the necessity of definite planning and well-established policies to prevent drifting. This means more professional spirit, more conscious direction, more technical experts. It means better human relations, more

opportunity for creative participation, and more credit for good work done.

Last of all, Myer and Coss make the point that the drastic changes in procedure dictated by the crisis will make sacrifice necessary. The book-selection department may have to concern itself less with release fiction and more with concise pamphlet presentation of the facts of current issues; readers' advisers may have to cease bemoaning the drop in the call for individual study courses on French fiction and short-story writing and get their teeth into the making of group-discussion outlines on Lend-Lease and social security or tackle new projects like the selling of pamphlets or the loaning of educational films. The foreign department may have to stop reading foreign literature and concentrate on teaching American principles to the foreign-born; and the publicity department may have to forego the pleasure of setting up exhibits of antiques and etchings and make it impossible for people to escape knowing what the library has to offer in the struggle of democracy against totalitarianism.

All three titles warn us not to stand "braced against change" while the world is in danger but to keep alert and flexible minded and to decide each demand for change on its own merits.

ALICE M. FARQUHAR

*Chicago Public Library*

*Above All Liberties.* By ALEC CRAIG. London: George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., 1942. (American distributors, W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., New York.) Pp. 205. \$2.50.

It is doubtful whether many readers will share the zeal which moves Mr. Craig to carry on the fight begun in his former volume, *The Banned Books of England*, which the present collection of essays continues by an account of the law of obscene libel as it operates in England, France, and the United States. One may question also the accuracy of the title, which suggests that the book deals with liberty of the press and the general problem of censorship, whereas it is restricted to the one aspect of the right to print whatever the author chooses in the matter of sex. Surely, freedom in the realm of politics and religion is of equal, if not greater, importance, and these the modern press has to a great extent achieved in the modern world.

To anyone interested in this form of curiosa, however, the work presents within brief compass

the development of the English law from its medieval ecclesiastical origins to some of its ridiculous manifestations in recent years, by means of the case histories of certain sordid but famous prosecutions. The essays cover such topics as: "Merry England," "Edmund Curril," "The Making of a Law," "Havelock Ellis," "The Strange Case of Count Potocki," "The Wider Censorship," "To Beg I Am Ashamed," "The Problem of Pornography."

The author's thesis that the political and religious liberals of the nineteenth century won their freedom by giving way on the question of sex is not convincing, and his arraignment of the negative censorship practiced by public library policies of book selection, while possibly true in many cases, makes no allowance for the practical problems raised by the presence on open shelves of books which large sections of the public consider questionable.

It is admittedly unfortunate that scientific investigations, sociological studies, and works of literary art dealing with problems of sex are often hampered by a law whose intent is to protect the public from pornographic works of quite different character and purpose. Few would maintain that police officers, judges, or postal authorities are necessarily competent judges in these matters, yet the existence of crime and a recognized portion of the public which is suggestible renders some legal protection advisable. The author admits the problem of pornography but offers no constructive solution for it save the vague one of more general sex education.

With due respect to the writer's sincerity and the industry which pursues each case to its remotest corners, this reviewer found the book somewhat solemn and not a little dull. The one bright spot is the information that the Bodleian Library prefixes the call numbers of its obscene books with an admonitory Greek letter Φ—a cheering sign of wit in the catalog room at least.

EVELYN STEEL LITTLE

*Mills College*

*Social Institutions in an Era of World Upheaval.*  
By HARRY ELMER BARNES. ("Prentice-Hall Sociology Series," edited by HERBERT BLUMER.) New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1942. Pp. xviii+927. \$5.35; text ed., \$4.00.

This comprehensive study of social institutions now under the impact of world revolution does not deal specifically with the public library. In fact, its Index contains no direct reference to the library as an institution. But the volume

gives the librarian a view of social institutions in the present world situation which should profoundly affect his thinking and, in turn, assist him in clarifying the objectives of library service to the present-day public.

The major thesis of the author is that in the face of the present world revolution social thinking, as expressed by the institutions which society has established to serve it, lags far behind the advance which society has made in the fields of science and technology and that, unless this lag can be eliminated, the result may well be nothing short of chaos and the extinction of civilization as we have known it. Society has previously undergone three major revolutions. The first was at the dawn of civilization when man began to reduce his thoughts to writing. The second was when the Roman Empire failed to provide means of communication and transportation adequate to match its political institutions and the magnitude of its physical empire. The third was the breakdown of the culture of the medieval world in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The present situation is, in the author's opinion, even more critical than any of these, because of the complexity of modern civilization and of the difficulty of effecting proper controls and adjustments in an era in which change is much swifter than it has ever been before.

The volume, comprising a Preface and twenty chapters, is divided into six parts as follows: Part I: "The Foundation and Framework of Social Institutions"; Part II: "Economic Institutions in an Era of World Crisis"; Part III: "Political and Legal Institutions in Transition"; Part IV: "Communication and the Formation of Public Opinion"; Part V: "Family and Community Disorganization"; Part VI: "Institutions Promoting Richer Living."

Chapters which will be of special interest to librarians are: chapter iii, "Cultural Lag and the Crisis in Institutional Life"; chapter v, "Capitalism and the Economic Crisis"; chapter ix, "The Crisis in American Democracy and the Challenge to Liberty"; chapter xiii, "Communication in Contemporary Society"; chapter xviii, "Education in the Social Crisis"; chapter xix, "Leisure, Recreation, and the Arts."

The volume evidences a scholarly understanding of the field of the social sciences, and its subject matter is presented with unusual vigor and clarity. Consequently, it should be of special interest to the librarian who wishes to increase his understanding of the economic, so-

cial, and psychological forces which are so profoundly modifying the present social order.

LOUIS R. WILSON

*University of North Carolina*

*Guide for the Study of American Social Problems.*

Compiled for the AMERICAN SOCIAL PROBLEMS STUDY COMMITTEE. New York: Columbia University Press, 1942. Pp. vii+181.

This *Guide* provides a workable approach to the study of eleven contemporary problems. The twelfth chapter, on "Community Councils," is in a somewhat different category in that it describes the procedures for organizing a community for action on the problems. The *Guide* will be helpful to the leaders of informal study groups of adults or older youth. It was prepared for the American Social Problems Committee under the editorship of Dr. Sophia M. Robinson. The sponsoring committee of fifty-seven able people, all specialists in one or more of the problems selected, served under the chairmanship of Dr. Harry Carman and the vice-chairmanship of Margaret Mead. Each chapter was individually prepared and submitted to a committee of the sponsors, who contributed their suggestions. Thus each chapter is the product of an individual guided by the co-operative thinking of a number of competent people.

The plan of the book is simple. Each chapter presents a general statement of a problem, usually outlined through the stating of subtopics in provocative questions. It purposely omits presentation of sufficient factual material under each subtopic but, instead, lists a variety of materials which the leader may secure. Thus it is somewhat less than a teaching outline but considerably more than a mere bibliography in that the insertion of questions and statements does provide general directions and suggests lines of inquiry. In general, the wealth of materials referred to was selected on the basis of their being "interesting, readily available, and authentic sources of information which are distributed free of charge or at small cost."

Each chapter of the *Guide* has a definite point of view. It tries to convince people to do something about the solution of problems as well as merely to intellectualize about them. The chapters are not, however, equal in quality or in logical organization.

I felt the chapter on "The Worker" was thorough and objective, affording any group

a broad approach to the major aspects of the labor question. The chapter on "The Farmer" seems to me to emphasize unduly the problems of the poverty-stricken farmer without adequate reference to the successful, prosperous farmer's existence. The *Guide* does not mention the powerful farm lobbies or the relation of the farmer to problems of foreign trade.

The chapter on "Women" provides probably the most comprehensive list of readings, suggesting ample materials for not one but a series of discussions.

In the chapter on "Youth" I should like to have some more emphasis on the means of transition of youth from school life into community life and the possible place of the public school in such a program. Nor is much made of the programs of Boy and Girl Scouts, 4-H Clubs, Future Farmers, C.Y.O., Y.M.C.A., and Y.W.C.A., which are providing essential outlets for youth. The N.Y.A. and the C.C.C. are mentioned only in the paragraph on "Youth and the War"; yet it seems to me their major contribution was in setting patterns for successful peace-time public work and establishing some practices which might well become a part of our total educational plan.

In an otherwise adequate chapter on "Education" the paragraph on adult education is merely a series of questions to which the intelligent layman can answer yes or no at once. There is no reference to the wealth of literature available in this field. No mention is made of the two major adult education associations, nor is there a concrete suggestion as to how the public schools, colleges, and librarians might reach into this area in order to strengthen democracy.

The chapter on "National Unity" is really a chapter on racial problems, dealing comprehensively with anti-Semitism and indicating some problems of the Indian, the Latin-American, and the Oriental (the Negro is fully discussed in a

separate chapter). This is a good outline, but if intended to be a study of national unity it needs to include the differences between labor and capital, government "in business," sectionalism, and other disuniting forces.

The chapter on the "Problem of Security" refers to national rather than to individual security. It affords a good analysis of the aftermath of the first World War, the events leading to the present war, and some steps on the way to a more rational settlement of international problems.

The chapter on "Community Councils" rather puts the cart before the horse. It describes in detail the setting-up of an organization rather than focusing attention on specific problems and permitting the organization to evolve as the community problems vary. It has been the experience of many communities that too much time was spent on creating an organization and too little energy left for the solution of pressing problems. Neither is there adequate emphasis on the possibilities of the Civilian Defense Council as a starter for the community-council idea. To be sure, many communities have muffed the possibilities of the Civilian Defense Council, but a study manual in this field should certainly have indicated fully how the civilian defense movement could have been the background for sound community planning.

Similar changes of emphasis might have improved some of the other sections, but these few comments will at least indicate that the book is usable and is not too strong a crutch for a lazy discussion leader to depend completely upon. It will stimulate and guide but in conformance with good pedagogy will force the teacher to do his own preparing and assembling of material.

LESLIE E. BROWN

*Lincoln Library  
Springfield, Illinois*

## BOOK NOTES

*ABC's for Hospital Librarians.* By ELIZABETH POMEROY. Chicago: American Library Association, 1943. Pp. 18. \$0.25.

The need for a manual of information for hospital librarians has led the American Library Association and its Hospital Libraries Round Table to reprint, with slight adaptation, Miss Pomeroy's manual issued by the U. S. Veterans Administration in 1941. Unlike Mary Frank Mason's *The Patients' Library* (reviewed in the July, 1943, issue of the *Library Quarterly*, pp. 273-75), this manual is intended not for untrained volunteers but for the trained librarian entering the hospital library field. Miss Pomeroy is superintendent of librarians, Veterans Administration.

*A Check List of Cumulative Indexes to Individual Periodicals in the New York Public Library.* Compiled by DANIEL C. HASKELL. New York: New York Public Library, 1942. Pp. 370. \$6.00.

When a library as rich in resources as the New York Public reports its holdings in any area, the information is likely to be useful to a far wider audience than the immediate patrons of that library. So with this *Check List of Cumulative Indexes*. Librarians who wish to ascertain whether cumulative indexes to any periodicals have been issued will find this publication indispensable. The compiler has included indexes which cover "at least three volumes of a file" and which attempt to classify the periodical contents, by author or by subject. The arrangement is alphabetical, by title.

*Index to Children's Poetry: A Title, Subject, Author, and First Line Index to Poetry in Collections for Children and Youth.* Compiled by JOHN E. and SARA W. BREWTON. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1942. Pp. xxxii+965. (On the service basis.)

The *Index to Children's Poetry* indexes over 15,000 poems contained in a selected group comprising 130 collections of poetry for children and young people. The volumes which are indexed consist primarily of general anthologies, collections of poetry by individual poets, and subject anthologies, and were chosen on the basis of the judgment of seventeen librarians and teachers who served as collaborators. Approximately 2,500 authors are represented in the volume. The *Index* is in dictionary form with title, subject, author, and first-line entries. Of particular value are the more than 1,800 subject entries, listed under specific subjects. An "Analysis of Books of Poetry Indexed" includes approximate grade levels for each book as well as

bibliographic details and general contents. The *Index* can be used as a general reference tool and as a book-selection guide; its usefulness and value are not restricted to libraries serving children and young people.

*War Subject Headings for Information Files.* 2d ed. New York: Special Libraries Association, 1943. Pp. 69. \$2.00.

This publication differs from the first edition of the same title (reviewed in the January, 1943, issue of the *Library Quarterly*, pp. 85-86) in several ways. Although it still comprises four lists of headings, the list used by the Research Library, Twentieth Century-Fox Film Company, has been omitted. A new list, limited in scope to economic aspects and to the United States only, is contributed by Standard and Poor's Corporation Library. The Cleveland Public Library's list, stressing the popular viewpoint and civilian defense, is revised and expanded. Current European war aspects are emphasized in the list of the Council on Foreign Relations, while the list of Time, Incorporated, is a classification scheme applied to war clipping files. Unlike the first list, which was mimeographed, the new list is printed and presents a more systematic appearance than its predecessor. It should be useful to all libraries having files of war materials.

*Subject Headings Used in the Dictionary Catalogs of the Library of Congress: Supplements to the 4th Edition, January 1941-March 1943.* New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1943. Pp. 65.

Although the fourth edition of *Subject Headings Used in the Dictionary Catalogs of the Library of Congress* has not yet been issued, the Wilson Company, now the publisher of the supplements to the list by arrangement with the Library of Congress, issues the first cumulated supplements. This publication provides the librarian with a good sample of what may be expected in the fourth edition itself. The cumulation includes all new headings and revisions which appeared in the eight quarterly supplements already issued from January, 1941, through March 15, 1943. The subject headings and the references are in one alphabet. In order to keep the fourth edition up to date, the Wilson Company has been issuing monthly lists of new headings and revisions. At the end of 1943 it plans to issue another complete cumulation which will include in one alphabet all the new headings and revisions adopted since January, 1941. Further monthly issues will appear beginning January, 1944.

## BOOKS RECEIVED

*Africa, the Near East, and the War: Lectures Delivered under the Auspices of the Committee on International Relations on the Los Angeles Campus of the University of California, Spring 1942.* Berkeley: University of California Press, 1943. Pp. xii+212. \$1.50.

*Andrea dal Castagno.* By GEORGE MARTIN RICHTER. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1943. Pp. viii+28+71 plates. \$2.50.

*Anuario bibliográfico mexicano de 1940, catálogo de catálogos, e índice de periódicos de 1941-42.* Compiled by JULIAN AMO. Mexico, D.F.: Secretaría de Relaciones Exteriores, Departamento de Información para el Extranjero, 1942. Pp. 320.

*The Book of the States: 1943-1944,* Vol. V. Chicago: Council of State Governments, 1943. Pp. xii+508. \$4.00.

*Books Abroad: An International Literary Quarterly.* Published by the University of Oklahoma Press, Norman, Oklahoma. \$2.00 per year; \$0.50 per copy.

*Books and Printing: A Selected List of Periodicals, 1800-1942.* By CAROLYN F. ULRICH and KARL KÜP. Woodstock, Vt.: William E. Rudge and the New York Public Library, 1943. Pp. xi+244. \$5.00.

*Challenge to Freedom.* By HENRY M. WRISTON. New York: Harper & Bros., 1943. Pp. x+240. \$2.00.

*Consumer Training.* By EDWARD WILLIAM HEIL. ("American Youth Series," edited by THOMAS H. BRIGGS.) New York: Macmillan Co., 1943. Pp. xii+584. \$2.72.

*Essays and Studies by Members of the Department of English, University of California.* ("University of California Publications in English," edited by B. H. LEHMAN, B. H. BRONSON, and J. R. CALDWELL, Vol. XIV.) Berkeley: University of California Press, 1943. Pp. 239. \$2.00.

*Favorite American Plays of the Nineteenth Century.* Edited by BARRETT H. CLARK. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1943. Pp. xxviii+553. \$3.75.

*German Military Science: A Book of Readings.* Compiled by AMES JOHNSTON. New York: Macmillan Co., 1943. Pp. xv+146. \$2.00.

*God Is My Co-pilot.* By ROBERT L. SCOTT, JR. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1943. Pp. viii+277. \$2.50.

*The Great Conflict.* By HAL HALL. 2d ed. Oakland, Calif.: Golden Gate Publishers, 1943. Pp. 151. \$1.75.

*A Handbook of Medical Library Practice: Including Annotated Bibliographical Guides to the Literature and History of the Medical and Allied Sciences.* Based on a preliminary manuscript by M. IRENE JONES; compiled by a committee of the MEDICAL LIBRARY ASSOCIATION; edited by JANET DOE. Chicago: American Library Association, 1943. Pp. x+609. \$5.00.

*Horace Walpole: Gardenist.* By ISABEL WAKELIN URBAN CHASE. Princeton: Princeton University Press for University of Cincinnati, 1943. Pp. xxix+285. \$3.50.

*Index to Plays in Collections: An Author and Title Index to Plays Appearing in Collections Published between 1900 and 1942.* By JOHN H. OTTEMILLER. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1943. Pp. 130. \$2.50.

*John Cotton Dana: A Sketch.* By CHALMERS HADLEY. ("American Library Pioneers," edited by EMILY MILLER DANTON, No. 5.) Chicago: American Library Association, 1943. Pp. 105. \$2.75.

*Know the South: Books with Southern Background for High Schools.* Compiled by AZILE WOFFORD. ("Reading for Background," No. 15.) New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1943. Pp. 94. \$0.35.

*Leadership at Work: 15th Yearbook of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association.* Washington: Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, N.E.A., 1943. Pp. vii+248. \$2.00.

*The Library Key: An Aid in Using Books and Libraries.* By ZAIDEE BROWN. 5th ed., rev. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1943. Pp. vi+133. \$0.70.

"Library Publicity Literature: A Review of Selected Books, Pamphlets, and Articles." Comp. to 1941 by KENNETH R. SHAFFER; rev. to 1943 by PUBLIC RELATIONS DIVISION, AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION. Chicago: American Library Association, 1943. Pp. 6. Free. (Mimeographed.)

*Life Out There: A Story of Faith and Courage.* By SERGEANT JOHNNY BARTEK, assisted by AUSTIN PARDUE. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1943. Pp. xviii+117. \$1.75.

*Literature: A Series of Anthologies,* Book I. By E. A. CROSS and ELIZABETH LEHR. Book II. By E. A. CROSS, DOROTHY DAKIN, and HELEN J. HANLON. Book III. By E. A. CROSS, FLORENCE M. MEYER, and EMMA L. REPPERT. New York: Macmillan Co., 1943. Pp. xii+627; xii+627; x+694. Book I, \$2.20; Book II, \$2.20; Book III, \$2.32.

*Manual of Foreign Dialects for Radio, Stage, and Screen.* By LEWIS HERMAN and MARGUERITE SHALETT HERMAN. Chicago: Ziff-Davis Pub. Co., 1943. Pp. 416. \$6.00.

*On the Gathering of a Library.* By HAL H. SMITH. Privately printed, 1943. Pp. 250.

*Parliamentary Usage.* By EMMA A. FOX. 4th ed.

Detroit: Maurice W. Fox, 5832 Second Blvd., 1943. Pp. 337. \$1.00.

*The Picture Collection.* Rev. by MARCELLE FREBAULT under the direction of BEATRICE WINSER. ("Modern American Library Economy Series.") 5th ed. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1943. Pp. 87. \$1.25.

"Plans for Security." By DOROTHY CAMPBELL TOMPKINS. ("Postwar Bibliographies," No. 1.) Berkeley: Bureau of Public Administration, University of California, 1943. Pp. 11. \$0.35. (Mimeo graphed.)

*Post-war Standards for Public Libraries.* Prepared by the COMMITTEE ON POST-WAR PLANNING OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION, CARLETON BRUNS JOECKEL, Chairman. ("Planning for Libraries," No. 1.) Chicago: American Library Association, 1943. Pp. 92. \$1.50.

*Proceedings of the Fifth All-India Library Conference Held in Bombay from the 3rd to the 6th April, 1942.* Published by Khan Bahadur K. M. Asadullah, Honorary General Secretary, Indian Library Association, 34 Chittaranjan Avenue, Calcutta.

*Programs for Library Schools.* By ERNEST J. REECE. New York: Columbia University Press, 1943. Pp. 64. \$1.00.

*School and College Libraries.* By S. R. RANGANATHAN. ("Madras Library Association Publication Series," No. 11.) Madras: Madras Library Association, 1942. Pp. 432. American distributor, H. W. Wilson Co.

*Short Cuts to Information: Time Savers for Teachers, Librarians, and All Who Must Find the Answers.* By ZAIDEE BROWN. (Reprinted from *The Library Key*, 5th ed.) New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1943. Pp. 28. \$0.25; additional copies in same order, \$0.10.

"State Councils of Defense." ("1943 Legislative Problems," No. 1.) Berkeley: Bureau of Public Administration, University of California, 1942. Pp. 38. \$0.50. (Mimeo graphed.)

"The State Library Agency: Its Functions and Organization." Statement by the A.L.A. LIBRARY EXTENSION BOARD; organization data compiled by JULIA WRIGHT MERRILL. 4th ed. Chicago: American Library Association, 1943. Pp. 38. (Mimeo graphed.)

"State Organization for Postwar Planning." By DOROTHY C. TOMPKINS. ("1943 Legislative Problems," No. 4.) Berkeley: Bureau of Public Administration, University of California, 1943. Pp. 16. \$0.50. (Mimeo graphed.)

*A Story of the Akron Public Library, 1834-1942.* By HELEN L. PARDEE. Akron, Ohio: The Library, 1943. Pp. 52. \$0.25.

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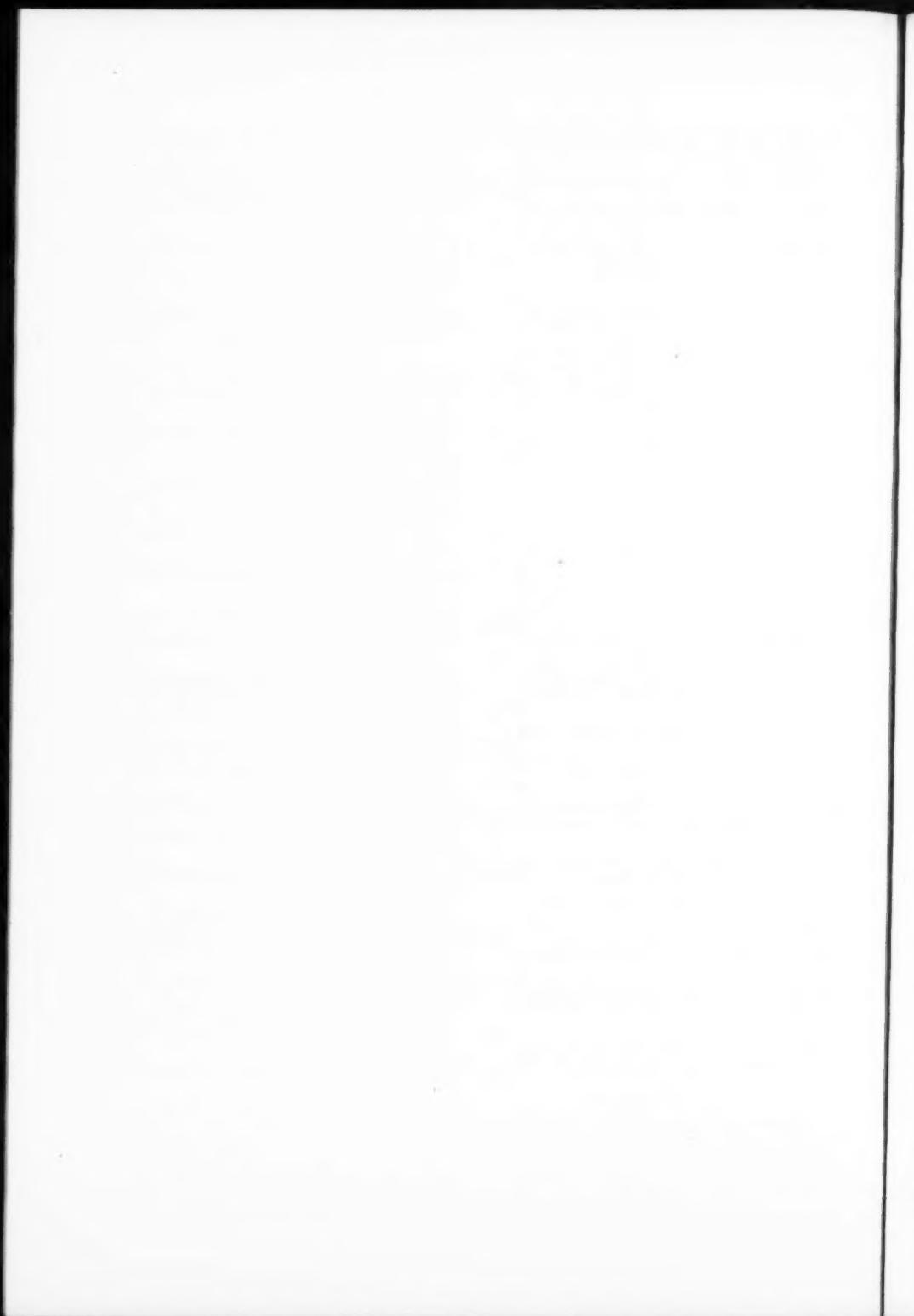
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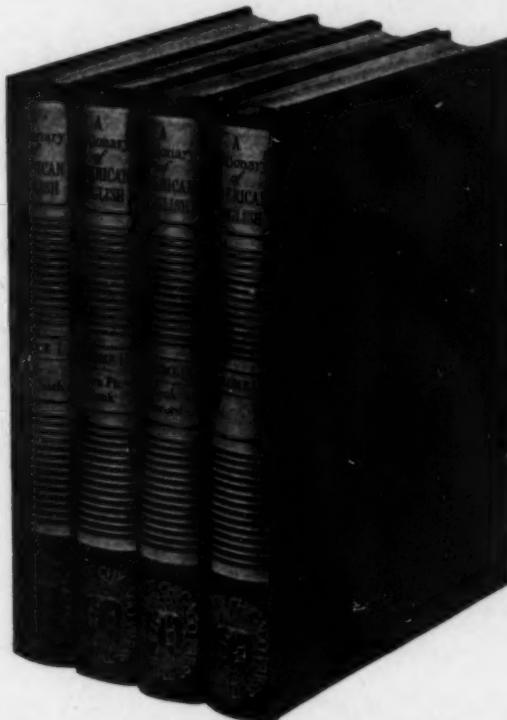
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